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DETERMINANTS OF EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATION: A STUDY OF THE RELATIVE EFFECTS OF FAMILY BACKGROUND AND SCHOOL. RELATED PREDICTORS OF THE POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL PLANS OF 7000 GRADE ELEVEN STUDENTS IN NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR

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by

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#### ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between background variables, such as parental education, socio-economic status, family size, and area of residence on the post-secondary school plans of high school youth when mediated through three school-related variables, study programme, self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations. The relative effects of these school-related variables on post-secondary school plans were also investigated.

The conceptual model on which this study is based was derived from a review of literature which indicated significant relationships between post-secondary school plans and the seven variables used in the study, parental education, socio-economic status, family size, area of residence, study programme, self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations.

The sample consisted of 7008 grade eleven high school students in Newfoundland and Labrador, 1973-74. The data was collected by a questionnaire which was sent to all the schools in the province. These questionnaires were mailed back to the university when they were answered. The data was coded by the Newfoundland and Labrador Computer Services at Memorial University.

The findings of the study were analysed under four main headings; findings related to study programme, findings related to self-concept of academic ability, occupational expectations, and finally, post-secondary school plans. Analyses were conducted for males and females. Many of the hypotheses in the study were found to be statistically significant at the

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.Ol level for both males and females, while others were found to be insignificant.

The rank ordering of the effects of the predictors of post-secondary school plans for male students were study programme, occupational expectations, self-concept of academic ability and family size. Variables which were shown to have modest effects were area of residence, parental education and socio-economic status.

The rank ordering of the effects of the predictors of post-secondary school plans for female students were occupational expectations, study programme, self-concept of academic ability, family size, parental education and area of residence. The variable which was shown to have only a modest effect on post-secondary school plans was socio-economic status.

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### CHAPTER 1

# INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

#### THE PROBLEM

One of the main concerns of today's society is the education of its youth. The roles for which the youth of the society are educated determine the type of society that will be evident in the future. In this respect, James Coleman (1961:1) states:

Educating its youth is probably a society's second most fundamental task - second only to the problem of organizing itself to carry out actions as a society. Once organized, if a society is to remain itself, the young must be so shaped as to fit into the roles on which the society's survival depends.

Newfoundland society is presently faced with a shortage of skilled workers and a lack of educated personnel. In view of this, we may ask if Newfoundland is to remain a producer of primary resources or is it to develop its human resources and secondary industry? The development of the natural and human resources are dependent upon an effective training base which, in many instances, is obtained at the post-secondary school level. Whether a society is viable depends, to some measure, on the effectiveness with which the human resources are developed. Being educated is not only profitable to the individual but it is also profitable to the society. A highly educated labour force is the prerequisite for change and innovation including the utilization of new modes of production.

Within this context, students' attitudes toward post-secondary education have been affected, to a large extent, by the opportunities provided for them to obtain an education. These opportunities have been

shaped by a number of social and psychological factors which a number of research studies have attempted to identify. Sewell, Haller and Straus (1957), for example, carried out one of the first major studies on the factors which influence the educational aspirations of youth. These authors reveal that socio-economic status is one of the major determinants of students' post-secondary school plans; that is, students from high socio-economic status background families were more likely to aspire to post-secondary school than students from low socio-economic status background families. The study also showed that, when IQ was used as an intervening variable between socio-economic status and postsecondary school aspirations of students, the advantage of students from high socio-economic status families was reduced. Breton (1972:137-139) also reports similar results. That is, the post-secondary school plans of high school students in Canada are positively related to the socioeconomic status background of the family. In the Newfoundland setting, Parsons (1974:136) has argued that the higher the socio-economic status of the student's family, the more likely he is to have post-secondary school plans.

Family size, parental education, and area of residence are other variables which have been found to influence post-secondary school aspirations of students. Boyle (1966) addressed himself specifically to determining the effects of area of residence upon post-secondary school plans of Canadian youth. The findings of his study indicate that students living in urban area are more likely to have post-secondary educational aspirations than students living in rural areas. Parental education may also

be viewed as a major determinent of educational plans. Students who come from families where parents are well educated have been found to be more likely to have post-secondary school plans than students who come from families where the education level of the parents is low. Support for this may also be found in Breton's (1972:167-169) study on Canadian high school youth. The findings of this study show that parental education is positively associated with the post-secondary school plans of students. Family size also seems to have an effect on the post-secondary school plans of high school youth. The study by Porter <u>et al.</u> (1973:61-63) in Ontario high schools, for example, found that family size was negatively related to post-secondary schooling. That is, the larger the family, the more likely students were to not attend post-secondary school.

Within the framework outlined above there are a number of intervening variables operating. The course of study a student follows in high school, for example, may be seen as one of the most important intervening variables. Students who are enrolled in a "general" study programme are less likely to plan to attend post-secondary school than students who are enrolled in an "academic" study programme. Support for this may be found in Barker's (1972) study of Alberta high school students. The findings from this study show that 91.4 percent of the students on the "academic" study programme in high school had post-secondary school plans while 82.9 percent of the students on the "general" study programme had similar plans (Barker, 1972:73).

Self-concept of academic ability may also be seen as an important intervening variable between a student's family background and his post-

secondary school plans. Support for this may be found in Singh's (1972: 149-150) study of elementary students in selected Newfoundland schools.

As may be seen from the above paragraphs the process of educational and occupational aspirations of high school students after graduation has been the concern of a number of different research studies. These studies generally show that various social and psychological factors influence post-secondary school plans of high school youth. Within this framework, the main problem of the present study is to determine the relative effects of selected factors on the post-secondary school plans of grade eleven students in Newfoundland for the 1973-74 academic year. The independent variables in the present study include parental education, socio-economic status of the student's family, the number of siblings in the family to which the student belongs, the area of residence in which the student resides, the programme of study in which the student is enrolled while in high school, the self-concept of academic ability of the student, and the student's occupational expectations.

Although the main problem is to determine the effects of the above independent variables on the educational plans of high school youth, this problem will be examined in its broadest perspective. In the first stage of the analysis we will examine the effects of parental education, socio-economic status, family size, and area of residence on the study programme a student follows in high school. The effects of parental education, socio-economic status, family size, area of residence and study programme on self-concept of academic ability of the student will be examined in the second stage. In the third stage the effects

of parental education, socio-economic status, family size, area of residence, study programme, and self-concept of academic ability on the occupational expectations of the student will be examined. In the fourth and final stage of the analysis, we will examine the effects of parental education, socio-economic status, family size, area of residence, study programme, self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations upon the post-secondary school plans of high school youth.

#### SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Although a number of studies regarding post-secondary school plans of high school youth have been conducted in the United States and mainland Canadad, only two such studies (Breton, 1972, and Parsons, 1974) have been carried out on Newfoundland youth.

Both of these studies found that parental education, socio-economic status, family size, and area of residence, had a significant effect upon students' educational aspirations. The present study examines the relationships between the above variables and post-secondary school plans of high school youth but we argue that these effects are mediated through such variables as study programme of the student, self-concept of academic ability, and occupational expectations of the student. In view of this, it is the writer's contention that, if a student has high occupational expectations, high self-concept of academic ability, and is enrolled in the "academic" study programme, the family background variables will have only moderate significance in the student's decision to attend a post-secondary school after high school. Hence, the results of this study will enable a teacher to become aware of his importance in students' educational decisions.

The results of this study will provide educational administrators and superintendents with a clearer insight into the educational plans of the future of Newfoundland students. A greater awareness of students' educational plans will enable these personnel to initiate a programme of development and implementation of guidance, curriculum, and administration into the schools for the benefit of the students. Also, a greater knowledge of the factors which influence students' educational plans may aid in the future development of educational facilities in the designated educational institutions at which students plan to continue their postsecondary education.

This study may also be significant in that the sample size used in the analysis is quite large, numbering 7008. The population ratio of this sample is large since there were just under eight thousand students enrolled in grade eleven in Newfoundland in 1973-74 (Parsons, 1974:126).

The study may also be significant in that both males and females are sampled. Many former research studies on post-secondary school plans have excluded females and as a result no comparisons could be made on the basis of sex.

Finally, the study may be significant in that we are testing factors that influence post-secondary school plans of youth in a developing province, Newfoundland. The theoretical and empirical research reveals that the factors under consideration in the present study have been influential on post-secondary plans of youth in advanced and developed

societies. Will the results of this study be in accordance with previous research in developed societies regarding post-secondary school plans?

#### LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This section deals with the limitations of the present study. The first limitation of the study is that only Newfoundland students enrolled in grade eleven for the 1973-74 academic year are included. Thus, from the results of this study we will not be able to determine how the aspirations of Newfoundland youth are changing with time.

Another major limitation of this study is that we do not know whether these students actually carried out their post-secondary plans and if the responses to the questionnaires ever became a reality. Also, we do not know the performance out-comes of these students in their final examinations.

A further limitation includes the questionnaire method of data gathering. This imposes problems beyond the control of the researcher and the study itself. The care with which the student answered the question at hand and his interpretation of the question are factors that could not be controlled.

A final limitation of this study is that in Newfoundland, grade eleven is the final year of high school. In this respect, the results may not be applicable for comparison of post-secondary school plans of high school youth in other Canadian provinces where grade twelve or thirteen marks the termination of high school.

# OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter two will present a review of the literature related to the post-secondary school plans of high school youth. The variables identified will be organized into a theoretical model and a number of hypothesized relationships presented. The review of the related literature will be organized so that the factors which influence each dependent variable are examined in turn. First, we will examine factors which affect the study programme of a student; second we will examine factors which affect the self-concept of academic ability of the student. Following this, we will examine factors which affect the occupational expectations of the student and factors which affect the post-secondary school plans of the student.

Chapter three will present the research methods used in the study. In this chapter we will discuss the sample; the manner in which the data was collected; measurement of the variables and the statistical analyses used in the study.

Chapter four will present the findings for this study, utilizing a format similar to that adopted in Chapter two. First of all, findings will be presented relating to study programme of a student; second, findings related to self-concept of academic ability of a student; third, findings related to occupational expectations of a student; and, fourth, findings related to post-secondary school plans of students. Findings will be presented for boys and girls separately. In this way we will be able to determine the effects of sex in the aspirations of grade eleven students.

#### CHAPTER 2

#### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this chapter a review of the related research regarding the postsecondary school plans of high school youth is presented. The method of presentation follows the ordering of the model segments which was introduced in the previous chapter. From this review the conceptual framework on which this study is based is also developed. Similarly, the hypotheses which have been derived from the basic conceptual model are formulated.

#### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

## Factors that Influence a Student's Study Programme

In this section we will examine some of the factors which influence the allocation of high school students to a particular study programme (academic or general). A recent study regarding the effects of socioeconomic status on study programme was carried out by Porter, <u>et al</u>. (1973:42-77). The authors showed a positive association between socioeconomic status origin and programme placement. It was found that for Ontario high school youth, the higher the socio-economic status background of the student's family, the more likely the student was to be enrolled in the "college preparatory programme" (Porter, <u>et al</u>., 1973:58-61). Conversely, the lower the socio-economic status origin of the student's family, the more likely the student was to be enrolled study programme.

Breton (1972:137-148), in a study of Canadian high school youth, found a strong association between study programme of the student and his socio-economic status background measured in terms of father's occupational prestige. The higher the socio-economic status background of the student's family, the more likely a student was to have enrolled in the academic study programme.

This leads us to believe that the opportunity of going to postsecondary school is lessened if students take the general programme. In this respect upper class students have an advantage over lower class students in that they are more likely to opt for, and to be allocated to the academic programme. This programme enables them to attend a postsecondary school of their own choosing whereas the general programme renders a student ineligible to attend university, College of Trades and Technology for technical courses, and nursing school. Students on the general programme are more likely to be of lower socio-economic status origin and discontinue their education after high school (Breton, 1972:205).

Kandel and Lesser (1970:213-223) have examined the relationship between socio-economic status origin and the student's programme placement in high school. Their findings were in keeping with those of Breton (1972) and Porter, et al. (1973).

Porter, <u>et al</u>. (1973:60), in writing on educational plans of Ontario youth after graduation, claims that:

A child with better educated parents will be encouraged by his parents to take courses which they know will be necessary for him to get on. They will try to make certain that he takes the advanced courses to be eligible for grade thirteen courses. Poorly educated parents may not realize the importance of this choice.

The significance of this finding indicates that parental education is directly and positively related to the student's study programme. That is, the higher the educational level of the parents, the greater their

familiarity with the courses of study in the high school; hence they are in a much better position to advise their children as to which programme of study they should follow. Porter claims that poorly educated parents will not be familiar with the programmes of study in the school and, as a result, will be incapable of advising their children of the most beneficial programme. In many cases, the general programme is chosen by the lower class students because the programme appears to be easier to pass and also, teachers are more apt to place lower class students on the general programme (Porter, <u>et al</u>., 1973:63). It may also be that these students lack interest in school and are less likely to aspire to postsecondary school to the same extent as upper class students.

Studies regarding the effects of family size on a student's study programme are scarce. However, family size has been found to affect the verbal and mental ability of students. Annastasi (1958:7-17) found that the smaller the size of the student's family the greater the probability that the student's reading comprehension would be above average. The author contends that children acquire verbal and speech patterns from their parents. Parents of small families tend to have much more time to verbally interact with each child. Thus, children from small families will have considerable advantages over their counterparts from larger families. That is, in small families verbal interaction patterns are more sporadic and less intensive.

The relationship between size of community and study programme is examined in the present research. The related literature did not indicate a direct relationship between these two factors. However, a positive

association was found between urban-rural area of residence and college plans in a study by Sewell and Armer (1966:163-167). These authors showed that students from urban areas were more likely to have college plans than students from rural areas. A sex difference was also found in this study. More specifically, females were more adversely affected by rural area residence than males with respect to post-secondary school plans.

Factors that Influence a Student's Self-Concept of Academic Ability

In this section of the study we will examine studies related to factors that influence a student's self-concept of academic ability. These factors include parental education, socio-economic status, family size, area of residence and study programme placement in the high school.

Self-concept is associated with the symbolic interactionist theory that a child's socialization involves interaction with significant others. The formation of a self-concept is dependent upon a reflection of oneself and on interaction with teachers, family members and peer groups. Porter, et al. (1973:66) go on to comment:

Self-concept is formed through interaction with parents, teachers, and peers, and reflects to a certain extent the opinions formed about the student's academic ability.

Academic performance is one of the major criteria used to evaluate a student's ability in school which, quite often, determines his educational plans for the future (Johnson, 1970:82-92).

The relationship between self-concept of academic ability and postsecondary school plans of high school youth was investigated by Porter,

et al. (1973:60) in their study of Ontario high school students. These researchers argue that the self-concept is an important intervening variable between a student's background and educational aspirations. The study revealed that the higher the student's self-concept of academic ability, the more likely he was to aspire to higher education.

The Porter, <u>et al</u>. study also indicated that background factors such as the student's social class, measured in terms of father's occupation, had a significant effect on self-concept of academic ability. Specifically, the study indicated that students of high socio-economic status families had a 22 percent greater chance of having a high selfconcept of ability than students whose father's occupational status was low.

The above study also contended that students, whose parents are highly educated, are more likely to develop a high self-concept than those students whose parents are poorly educated (Porter, <u>et al.</u>, 1973:66). Educated parents will be more informed of the methods of stimulating a high self-concept in their children. They are more likely to encourage them to do better work which will enhance their academic self-concept. Parents who are poorly aducated do not realize the importance of instilling a high self-concept in their children. Consequently, the student may receive little encouragement to perform well academically, which may reduce their chances of having high educational aspirations.

# Factors that Influence a Student's Occupational Expectations

This section of the chapter deals with studies that investigated the relationships between occupational expectations of students and selected

background variables such as parental education, socio-economic status, family size and urban-rural area of residence, and two school-related variables, study programme placement and self-concept of academic ability.

Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf (1970:1013-1019), in a study of Wisconsin male high school youth, formulated a model of occupational expectations. Their model indicated that academic performance, in addition to its indirect effects through significant others' influence, had moderate direct paths of influence on levels of occupational expectation (Sewell, Haller and Orlendorf, 1970:1016). They note that the effect of academic performance on significant others' influence was less than Sewell, Haller and Portes (1969:82-92) had estimated in an earlier paper (B = .35). In a revised edition of the paper, they noted that their earlier estimate of the relationship was too low. A path coefficient of .54 was a more accurate figure. Since their study was carried out with male students as the subjects, there were no comparisons made on the basis of sex.

An earlier study, on the occupational expectations of students was carried out by Sewell, Haller and Straus (1957:67-73). These authors argue that students from high socio-economic status backgrounds are more likely to have high occupational expectations than students from low socio-economic status backgrounds. More explicitly, this finding was significant for males when measured intelligence was controlled. The authors of the study also speculated that female students from high socioeconomic status backgrounds had higher post-secondary educational plans than those of low socio-economic status origin when measured intelligence was controlled.

One of the most important studies regarding occupational expectations of high school students was carried out by Sewell and Hauser (1972:58-65). They contend that the path to a high occupational status is through higher education. High socio-economic status families use this path most by perhaps providing the genes and the stimulating environment that result in superior cognitive abilities. Also, high socio-economic status families provide encouragement for their children to aspire to high status occupations. This will provide the means whereby an occupational status peak can be achieved. Higher status families have also supplied their children with highly prestigeous jobs through direct family occupational inheritance, as well as through personal influence.

Breton's (1970:233) study of Canadian high school youth indicates that socio-economic status has a significant effect on student's occupational choices. The author presents evidence to support this position: 78 percent of males whose fathers have white coller occupations choose professional or managerial occupations, whereas this choice is made by slightly more than half, 56.2 percent, of those students whose fathers are in the low social class.

Breton found that generally, area of residence did not make a great difference in students' occupational aspirations; Ecwever, the Maritime provinces were one exception. Breton (1972:232-233) comments:

With the regional differences that can be formed in Canada it is not unreasonable to expect that occupational preferences among boys would not be homogeneous throughout the country; therefore, it is surprising to find that they are indeed homogeneous. Regardless of the region in which they live, more than the choose professional or managerial occupations as their preference. But there is one region that differs from the others: the maniference, which have the lowest per capita personal income, the lowest proportion of boys who choose these particular occupations.

Breton also argues that parental education is an important factor in a student's decision to aspire to a high status occupation because parental encouragement generally comes from families where the education level of the parents is high. However, if the education of the parents does not go beyond elementary school, parental encouragement will not generally be a factor in a child's choice of occupation. The mother's educational attainment does not affect the child's occupational preference if the father's education is at the postsecondary level.

The data suggests that for boys who choose high status occupations, the father's education level has a greater effect on their occupational choice than the level of the mother's education. However, there is an interesting interaction effect evident in his study. To this effect Breton (1972:234) comments:

If the father has completed high school or has gone beyond it, a boy most frequently chooses a high-status white collar occupation regardless of the type of education his mother has had; on the other hand, if the father has had no more than an elementary education, the mother's attainment in this regard has a negative influence on the choice of that occupation.

The Breton study indicates that parental encouragement is positively associated with occupational expectations of students. The study also indicates that parental encouragement is more prevalent in upper class families where the parents are well educated. Conversely, parental discouragement lowers the likelihood of high occupational expectations more than any other factor. In Breton's (1972:245) words:

Boys are more likely to aspire to high-status, white collar occupations when they receive encouragement from their parents to continue their training full time after high school; they are least likely when they discourage them from continuing it.

Finally, Breton reported on the relationship between a student's study programme and occupational expectations. The findings showed that females in non-academic study programmes were more likely to want to pursue a career than their counterparts in academic study programmes. Furthermore their self-knowledge and vocational competence were both related to career intentions (Breton, 1972:294)

Jencks (1972:140) reported on the relationship between middle and lower class students with regard to their occupational aspirations. He claims that many students stay in school solely for the purpose of attaining a high-status occupation. Still others decide how long they want to stay in school and adjust their occupational choice to their schooling interest. Lower class children, according to Jencks, have lower occupational aspirations partly because they are more reluctant to stay in school. They feel that if they do not find school beneficial, they may drop out at their own convenience. Middle class students, however, are under pressure from their more affluent parents to attend school and thus obtain a more prestigeous occupation. However, in concluding, Jencks (1972:254) remarks:

Since educational attainment is only partly determined by family background, and since occupational status is only partly determined by educational attainment, family background ends up exerting a moderate influence on a man's eventual occupation.

In summary, this section of the related research review dealt with factors in the conceptual model which affect occupational expectations of high school youth. Parental education, socio-economic status, family size, and urban-rural area of residence are background factors which influence students' choice of an occupation. Two other factors considered in the review of literature which are related to occupational choice were study programme placement and self-concept of academic ability.

## Factors that Influence a Student's Post-Secondary

#### School Plans

This section of the review deals with selected factors that influence the post-secondary school plans of high school youth. Such variables as parental education, socio-economic status, family size, area of residence, study programme, self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations are the factors which affect post-secondary school plans.

One of the first major studies in the area of post-secondary school plans of high school youth was carried out by Sewell, Haller and Straus (1957). Their study dealt with the relationship between social class and post-secondary school plans as mediated by measured intelligence. The results of the study show no significant relationship between socio-economic status background of the family and a student's post-secondary school plans when measured intelligence is controlled.

Nevertheless, an Ontario study of grade thirteen students by Fleming (1957), in the same year, revealed that the higher the socio-economic status of the student, the greater the number of students who aspire to engage in some post-secondary education. Williams (1972) study using Ontario data found that socio-economic status had no direct effects on post-secondary school plans. However, Little and Westerguard (1964: 301-316), in a study of high school youth in England and Wales, found that educational opportunities have been more advantageous to students from middle and upper class families rather than students from low socio-economic status families. The Williams (1972) study was carried out using control variables in the analysis whereas the Little and Westerguard (1964) study did not hold any variables constant.

In writings regarding the Canadian educational scene in the 1950's, Pike (1970:57) comments:

Most students attending university in Canada at this particular time came from high socio-economic status families. This also means that they came from families where the education level of the parents was relatively high; that is, at least with high school graduation. Although there were more students entering university from blue-collar families, they were still grossly underrepresented.

Although there was an increase in school retention rates of students from the lower socio-economic status class, this group still remained the group least likely to continue their schooling beyond the minimum leaving age (Pike, 1970:61).

Breton (1972:138) found a positive association between socioeconomic status origin and post-secondary school plans of students. That is, the results of the study indicated that 73 percent of males

from high socio-economic status families planned to attend postsecondary school after completing high school whereas 60 percent of those male students from low socio-economic status families planned to continue their education beyond high school. A similar relationship was found for females; 69 percent from high socio-economic status families had post-secondary school plans whereas 59 percent of female students from low socio-economic status families had similar plans.

Jencks, <u>et al</u>. (1972:143) argues that children from upper class families will receive approximately four years more schooling than lower class students. This inequality is caused by family background factors which influence the student's educational future. In Jencks' words:

Family background explains nearly half the variation in educational attainment. A family's socio-economic status is of course, a major determinent of its overall impact on its children. But factors such as family size also account for a significant fraction of a family's overall effect on its children's educational attainment (Jencks, et al. (1972:145).

One of the most important findings that Jencks records is the effect of curriculum placement on educational attainment. He contends that assigning a student to an academic study programme in school, actually gives the student access to higher education (Jencks, <u>et al.</u>, 1972:158).

Porter, et al. (1973:47) in a study of Ontario High school youth, found that the socio-economic status background of a student's family was directly related to his post-secondary school plans. That is, 79 percent of students from high socio-economic status families had post-

secondary school plans whereas only 61 percent of students from low socio-economic status families had post-secondary school plans.

A study of Newfoundland high school youth by Parsons, <u>et al.</u> (1974: 135) indicates that one of the most important factors in a student's decision to attend a post-secondary educational institution is the socioeconomic status background of his family. The results of the study indicate that 80.6 percent of students from higher socio-economic status families had post-secondary school plans whereas 75.8 percent of students from low status families had similar plans. However, this difference does not appear to be quite as large as Breton's finding indicates.

One of the major findings of Breton's (1972) study indicates that a relevant influential factor on the post-secondary school plans of Canadian high school students is parental education. In their study the education level of the parents was positively associated with students' post-secondary school plans. Furthermore, Breton (1972:168) found that:

The effect of the father's education level is about the same for the plans of both boys and girls whereas that of the mother has a stronger impact on those of girls.

In other words, the education level of the father influenced the postsecondary school plans of males and females equally. However, the educational level of the mother had a greater effect on the educational plans of females than manes.

Parsons (1974:138) showed that father's education was significantly related to student's post-secondary school plans. Eighty-two point five percent of the students who came from families where the father was highly educated had post-secondary school plans, whereas 72.8 percent of the students whose fathers were poorly educated had similar plans.

The relationship between family size and post-secondary school plans was investigated by Breton (1972:185) who contended that the larger the size of the family the lower the proportion of males and females who plan to attend post-secondary school: 69 percent of males from small families had post-secondary school plans whereas 64 percent of males from large families had similar plans. For females, a similar pattern resulted: 65 percent of the girls from small families had post-secondary school plans whereas 57 percent of females from large families had similar plans.

Parsons (1974:139) indicated that the results of his Newfoundland study on post-secondary school plans of high school youth clearly showed a negative relationship between family size and education plans. That is, the greater the number of children in the family, the less likely students were to have post-secondary school plans.

The Porter, et al. (1973:61-63) study also investigated the relationship between family size and a student's post-secondary school plans when socio-economic status was controlled. The results indicated that for students from high socio-economic status families, 77 percent from small families had post-secondary school plans, whereas only 63 percent of the students from large families had post-secondary school plans. A similar result was found for students from low socio-economic status families (Porter, et al., 1973:61).

Sewell and Armer (1966:160-167) studied the effects of area of residence upon post-secondary school plans of high school youth. These writers noted that students from urban areas were more likely to plan on attending post-secondary school than rural area students. Nevertheless, their study indicated that the "area of residence" factor added little to

the explained variance in post-secondary school plans beyond that accounted for by sex, socio-economic status background of the family and measured intelligence (Sewell and Armer, 1966:166). The study also suggests an interaction effect in that females from urban areas are more adversely affected than male students regarding educational aspirations. Furthermore, females from the upper social class were less affected by the area of residence factor than were female students from the lower social class.

Boyle (1966:278) carried out a study on post-secondary school plans for a sample of Canadian high school youth. The results of the study showed a positive, direct relationship between community size and postsecondary school plans. That is, the larger the size of the community, the greater the number of students who aspired to post-secondary school. Furthermore, the effect was found to be greater for male students than female students.

Breton (1972:164) found that a positive relationship existed between community size and post-secondary school plans of high school students. He argues:

The larger the community of residence, the greater the likelihood of high educational intentions. This relationship is stronger among boys than girls, and it maintains itself when mental ability rank, socioeconomic origin, and language are successively controlled.

Although the language factor is not a matter of concern in this thesis, the above finding is significant in view of the educational aspirations of students.

The Porter, <u>et al</u>. study also dealt with the difference between urban and rural area students in relation to plans for university.
Porter, et al. (1973:68) claims:

There were important differences between metropolitan students and those from rural areas with 42 percent of the former and 27 percent of the latter wanting to graduate from university.

The results showed that generally, a higher percentage of females had educational plans after high school than males. However, not as many girls aspired to university as boys.

In a final comment Porter notes that these factors must not be seen in isolation, but interacting together. For example, as previously mentioned, there was an interaction effect between family size and social class such that the effect of family size appeared to be larger in the upper socio-economic status class.

One of the major findings of the Parsons, <u>et al.</u> (1974) study indicated no significant positive relationship between area of residence and post-secondary school plans. The results of the study indicated that 77.3 percent of students from rural areas of Newfoundland had postsecondary school plans. Likewise, 76.4 percent of students from urban areas had similar plans.

Kandel and Lesser (1970:213-223) carried out a comparative study on the educational plans of adolescents in the United States and Denmark. These authors argued that in the United States, students who were enrolled in an academic study programme in high school were more likely to have post-secondary school plans than students who enrolled in a technical programme. However in Denmark, there was no significant difference between the postsecondary school plans of youth in either programme of study in the high school.

The Parsons, <u>et al.</u> (1974:140) study indicated that a significant positive relationship existed between a student's study programme in high school and post-secondary school plans. The results show that 80.1 percent of the students enrolled in the academic study programme had post-secondary school plans whereas only 64.8 percent of students in the general study programme had similar plans.

Breton (1972:199) found that the study programme placement of a student in high school was significantly related to post-secondary school plans. He states:

The type of study programme is strongly associated with educational intentions. This is particularly true when non-terminal and terminal programmes are compared, but also when comparing the academic and the vocational: students in non-terminal programmes have much higher educational intentions than those in the terminal; similarly those in the academic have higher intentions than those in the vocational.

The relationship between self-concept of ability and post-secondary school plans was investigated by Porter, <u>et al.</u> (1973:65-67). These authors contended that there was a positive relationship between selfconcept of ability and educational aspirations after high school. In effect, a high concept of one's ability is necessary for adequate learning and self-knowledge (Porter, et al., 1973:65).

## A CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Following the related literature review a conceptual model of the determinants of the probability of attending post-secondary school is presented. The exogenous and endogenous variables are designated x<sub>1</sub> to x<sub>3</sub>.

#### FIGURE 1

CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE DETERMINANTS OF THE PROBABILITY OF ATTENDING POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL



The relationships indicated in this model were derived directly from the review of literature and are the basis for the hypotheses presented in the next section. It is noted that all variables to the left of any one particular variable have effects upon the variables to the right.

be significant at the .OI level for both pales and females.

#### THE HYPOTHESES

This section of the chapter deals with the hypothesized relationships as derived from a review of the related research regarding postsecondary school plans of high school youth. The hypotheses are presented in this chapter. That is, hypotheses related to a student's study programme; hypotheses related to self-concept of academic ability; hypotheses related to occupational expectations; and finally, hypotheses related to post-secondary school plans.

#### Hypotheses Related to Study Programme

In this section, we will present the hypotheses related to a student's study programme placement. The four independent variables in this section of the analysis are parental education, socio-economic status, family size and urban-rural area of residence.

<u>Hypothesis 1</u>: Students whose parents are well eduated will be more likely to be enrolled in the academic study programme than students whose parents are poorly educated. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

<u>Hypothesis 2</u>: Students whose families are of high socio-economic status origin will be more likely to be enrolled in the academic study programme than students whose parents are of low socio-economic status origin. This relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

<u>Hypothesis 3</u>: The larger the size of a student's family, the less likely is he to have enrolled in the academic study programme. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .Ol level for both males and females.

<u>Hypothesis 4</u>: Students who live in urban areas of Newfoundland will be more likely to be enrolled in the academic study programme than students living in rural areas. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

#### Hypotheses Related to Self-Concept of

#### Academic Ability

In this section we will discuss the hypotheses related to selfconcept of academic ability. The independent variables that comprise these relationships are parental education, socio-economic status, family size, urban-rural area of residence, and study programme.

Hypothesis 5: Students whose parents are highly educated will be more likely to have a high self-concept of academic ability than students whose parents are poorly educated. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .Ol level for both male and female students.

<u>Hypothesis 6</u>: Students who come from high socio-economic status families will be more likely to have a high academic self-concept than students who come from low socio-economic status families. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .Ol level for both male and female students.

<u>Hypothesis 7</u>: Students who come from large families will be less likely to have a high self-concept of academic ability than students who come from small families. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

<u>Hypothesis 8</u>: Students who live in urban areas of Newfoundland will be more likely to have a high academic self-concept than those students living in rural areas. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females. <u>Hypothesis 9</u>: Students who are enrolled in the academic study programme in high school will be more likely to have a high self-concept of academic ability than students who are enrolled in the general study programme. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

#### Hypotheses Related to Occupational Expectations

In this section, we will examine the hypotheses related to students' occupational expectations. The independent variables in this section of the analysis include the four background variables, study programme, and self-concept of academic ability.

<u>Hypothesis 10</u>: Students who come from highly educated parental families will be more likely to have high occupational expectations than those students whose parents are poorly educated. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .Ol level for both males and females.

<u>Hypothesis ll</u>: Students who come from high socio-economic status families will be more likely to have high occupational expectations than students who come from low socio-economic status families. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

<u>Hypothesis 12</u>: Students who come from large families will be less likely to have high occupational expectations than students who come from small families. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

<u>Hypothesis 13</u>: Students who live in urban areas of Newfoundland will be more likely to have high occupational expectations than students who live in rural areas. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

<u>Hypothesis 14</u>: Students who are enrolled in the academic study programme in high school will be more likely to have high occupational expectations than students enrolled in the general study programme. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

<u>Hypothesis 15</u>: Students who have a high self-concept of academic ability will be more likely to have high occupational expectations than students who have a low self-concept of academic ability. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

Hypotheses Related to Post-Secondary School Plans

In this section, we will present the hypotheses related to post-secondary school plans. The independent variables in this section of the analysis are: parental education, socio-economic status, family size, urban-rural area of residence, study programme, self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations.

<u>Hypothesis 16</u>: Students whose parents are highly educated will be more likely to have post-secondary school plans than students whose parents are poorly educated. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

<u>Hypothesis 17</u>: Students who come from high socio-economic status families will be more likely to have post-secondary school plans than students who come from low socio-economic status families. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

<u>Hypothesis 18</u>: The larger the size of the student's family, the less likely he is to have post-secondary school plans. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

<u>Hypothesis 19</u>: Students who live in urban areas of Newfoundland will be more likely to have post-secondary school plans than students living in rural areas. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both male and female students.

<u>Hypothesis 20</u>: Students who are enrolled in the academic study programme will be more likely to have post-secondary school plans than students enrolled in the general study programme. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

Hypothesis 21: Students who have a high self-concept of academic ability will be more likely to have post-secondary school plans than students who have a low self-concept of academic ability. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for male and female students.

<u>Hypothesis 22</u>: Students who have high occupational expectations will be more likely to have post-secondary school plans than students who have low occupational expectations. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both male and female students.

#### SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with three major aspects of the related research review. The first section of the chapter reviewed studies dealing with four topics concerning post-secondary school plans: (1) factors that influence a student's study programme placement; (2) factors that influence a student's self-concept of academic ability; (3) factors that influence a student's occupational expectations; and (4) factors that influence post-secondary school plans.

A second section of this chapter presented a conceptual model on which this study is based. The relationships between the variables, as observed in the review of literature, were presented in this model. Finally, the hypothesized relationships for this study, which were also derived from the review of literature, were presented.

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#### CHAPTER 3

#### THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research procedures used in conducting the investigation. There are three major sections. In the first section we discuss the sample of students selected for the study; in the second section we examine the manner in which the variables are measured; and in the final section we discuss the statistical procedures used in the analysis of the results.

#### THE SAMPLE

The data for this study was collected by the "Committee on 1974 Enrollment" for Memorial University. This committee was organized by the President of the University to study three aspects of enrollment; (1) the large drop in enrollment of freshman students in September, 1973; (2) to investigate any changes in the pattern of enrollment in each faculty and the causes; (3) to estimate the enrollment of Memorial University in September, 1974 (Parsons, <u>et al.</u>, 1974:1-9). The collection of the data was carried out by mailing questionnaires to all grade eleven students in Newfoundland and Labrador. Each student was asked to answer the questionnaire and seal it himself in order to ensure the confidentiality of the data. The questionnaires were then returned to the University where they were coded according to the district and school.

The size of the sample used in this research study was 7008 grade eleven students in Newfoundland and Labrador in 1973-74. This was 87.6 percent of the total number of students to whom questionnaires were

distributed. Three thousand four hundred and six males answered the questionnaires which were 48.6 percent of the total sample of students and 3602 females answered the questionnaires which was 51.4 percent of the total sample of students. The breakdown of the sample, in crosstabular form, is presented in Table 1.

# TABLE 1

#### SAMPLE OF STUDENTS BY STUDY PROGRAMME,

AREA OF RESIDENCE, AND SEX

areas that ra-	Mal	.es	Fem	ales	B percept cont
Area of Residence	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Total
Study Programme	o recursed to	elt forheir	es fron	Furel area	s vere 3963
Academic	17.4% (1185)	19.0% (1293)	16.5% (1122)	22.4% (1528)	75.19% 5128
General	4.3% (295)	8.0% (547)	4.1%	8.4% (573)	24.81% 1692
Total	21.7% (1480)	27.0% (1840)	20.6%	30.8%	100 % (6820)
	(1400)	(1040)	(1099)	(STOT)	(0020)

Missing Data	188
Grand Total	7008

From Table 1 it can be seen that the number of males from urban area who returned questionnaires were 1480 which is 21.7 percent of the total number of cases. The number of females from urban areas that replied to the questionnaires were 1399 which is 20.5 percent of the total number of cases. Thus the total number of students who returned questionnaires from urban areas were 2879 which is 42.2 percent of the total number of students (6820) in this particular analysis. Similarly, the various percentages and cell Ns for rural students can be calculated. 1842 males from rural areas replied to the questionnaires which is 27.0 percent of the total sample of students. The number of females from rural areas that returned questionnaires is 2101 which is 30.8 percent of the total number of students who replied. Thus, the total number of students who returned questionnaires from rural areas were 3943 which is 57.8 percent of the total number of students in this particular analysis. Thus it can be noted that there was a larger percentage of questionnaires returned from rural areas than urban areas.

### MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES

In this section of the chapter, the definition and measurement of the variables are discussed. These variables include parental education, socio-economic status, family size, area of residence, study programme, self-concept of academic ability, occupational expectations, and post-secondary school plans.

#### Parental Education

Parental education refers to an additive combination of the years of education for the father and mother of each student. Parents with a combined number of years of schooling which amounted to less than 18.0 were referred to as having a low education level. A high parental education level means greater than 18.0 years of schooling. In other words, where the total combined parental education was less than 18 years of schooling; the parental educational level was designated as "low".

#### Father's Occupational Status (Socio-Economic Status)

Father's occupational status was derived from the prestige ordering of the Blishen (1958:523) occupational scale for Canadians. The various categories of occupations are listed in the questionnaire (Appendix A, question 2). The occupational categories were dichotomized into high socio-economic status and low socio-economic status. Occupations numbered 1, 2, and 3, on the occupational scale, which included owner and manager of large and small business, plus all those employed in professional positions were classified as high prestigious occupations. All other occupations on the scale were classified as low status occupations; for example, fishermen, farmer, clerical personnel, tradesmen and others.

# Family Size

Family size refers to the number of children in a family. A small family is identified as having three or fewer children while a large family is identified as having four or more children. This is only a proxy for family size since we do not have information on whether both parents are present in the family.

## Area of Residence

The area of residence variable was constructed according to the size of population in a particular area. All areas of Newfoundland with a population over eight thousand were categorized as an urban area of residence. These included St. John's, Corner Brook, Grand Falls, Gander, Stephenville, Wabush, and Labrador City. All other areas were classified as a rural area of residence.

#### Study Programme

This variable refers to the type of study programme (Academic or General) in which the student was enrolled in grade eleven. The academic study programme enables students to attend a post-secondary school of their own choosing upon matriculation from grade eleven. A general study programme enables a student to attend only particular post-secondary schools, such as vocational schools, the Fisheries College, and the College of Trades and Technology to register in nontechnical trades only.

## Self-Concept of Academic Ability

Self-concept of academic ability refers to the students' views of their OWN academic abilities. Question 17 of the questionnaire (Appendix A)

lists six items selected from the Brookover, <u>et al</u>. (1962) scale. Responses of each student on each of the items contained in the selfconcept of ability scale were added and a mean score was calculated. A student could obtain a score between 6 and 30. A score less than 14 was considered low self-concept of academic ability while a score of 14 and above was considered a high self-concept of academic ability.

#### Occupational Expectations

This concept refers to the occupational expectations of students immediately after completion of grade eleven. Students were asked to indicate their occupational choice by indicating one of fourteen specific occupational categories (Appendix A, question 19). Occupational categories 1, 2, and 3 were referred to as high occupational status. All other occupations were categorized as low occupational status.

## Post-Secondary School Plans

For the purposes of this thesis, post-secondary school plans refer to students' educational plans after high school graduation. The variable was categorized into students who had plans to attend any post-secondary school and students who had no plans to attend a post-secondary school.

#### STATISTICAL ANALYSES

In this section of the chapter the methods of analysis used in this study is described. There are three forms of analysis used, multiple regression analysis, crosstabulation and the weighted net percentage difference technique.

Multiple regression analysis is used to test the strengths of the relationships in the conceptual model. Bulcock (1975:18-24), in a preliminary investigation, found low regression paths between some of the relationships used in this study and as a result, it was decided that these relationships could be excluded from the crosstabular analysis. The inclusion of these statistically insignificant relationships in the crosstabulations would have little effect on the findings for this study.

The crosstabulation method of analysis is used to demonstrate the relationships between variables in the conceptual model. This method of data analysis enables the user to investigate a number of variables in a particular classification. The variables can be dichotomized and categorized into contingency tables which can be analysed by several tests of significance. The statistical test used throughout the thesis as a criterion for accepting or rejecting the hypothesized relationships, is the method used by Davies (1962:1-5) to determine the significance between two percentages.

The weighted net percentage difference (WNPD) statistic (Spady, 1970:3-10) was used to determine the strength of the association between percentage differences in the crosstabular analyses. Since this statistic is a relatively recent development, its usage in research studies of this nature has not been frequently utilized.

#### SUMMARY

In summary then, this chapter described the sample used in the present study. There were seven thousand and eight questionnaires returned to the University. Of these, 3406 were answered by males and 3602 were

answered by females. Variables as measured in this study were also defined in this chapter. The variables included, parental education, socio-economic status, family size, area of residence, study programme, self-concept of academic ability, occupational expectations, and postsecondary school plans. Finally, the methods of statistical analysis used in this study were presented and discussed. There were three methods used, multiple-regression analysis, crosstabulations, and the weighted net percentage difference (WNPD) technique.

the of the relationships depicted in the conceptual midel have omitted from the crossetabular tables and thus from the weighted new crosse difference tables in this chapter. As stated previously, the original for omitting these relationships was due to low butes found in inimary analysis by Bulcock (1975:18-27). These relationships robuit to be statistically insignificant, and consequently, were

#### Related to Study Programme

This is Students whose parents are well educated will be more to be earolled in the academic study programme than students purents are poorly educated. We hypothesize that this relationshi be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

#### CHAPTER 4

#### ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In this chapter we will examine the hypothesized relationships between the variables. In the first part of the analysis we will examine those variables which have an effect upon the study programme of a student. Following this, we will examine the variables which are related to the student's self-concept of ability, his occupational expectations, and finally his post-secondary school plans. The presentation and interpretation of the findings for the study parallel the logic used in Chapter 2. Analyses are presented for male and female students separately.

Some of the relationships depicted in the conceptual model have been omitted from the crosstabular tables and thus from the weighted net percentage difference tables in this chapter. As stated previously, the rationale for omitting these relationships was due to low betas found in a preliminary analysis by Bulcock (1975:18-27). These relationships were found to be statistically insignificant, and consequently, were excluded from the present analysis.

#### Results Related to Study Programme

<u>Hypothesis 1</u>: Students whose parents are well educated will be more likely to be enrolled in the academic study programme than students whose parents are poorly educated. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .Ol level for both males and females. Table 2 shows the effect of parental education on study programme when controlling for socio-economic status and family size for the male students in the sample. Approximately 92 percent of the students from small families whose parents are well-educated and who come from high socio-economic status families are enrolled in the academic study programme. Similarly, of those male students who are from small families and of high socio-economic status origin but whose parents are poorly educated, 73.3 percent are enrolled in the academic study programme. That is, there is a 19 percent difference in parental education between these two groups of students. Similarly, we observe a 7.8 percent difference for the males from large families with highly educated parents.

 PΛ	RI	F	2

THE EFFECTS OF PARENTAL EDUCATION, SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND FAMILY SIZE ON STUDY PROGRAMME FOR MALES

Study Programme	SES	Family Education	Family S Small	Size Large
Academic	High	High	92.3 (227)	84.1 (175)
Study Pro		Low	73.3 (22)	67.2 (39)
	Low	High	81.3 (296)	76.4 (423)
		Low	71.6 (187)	65.0 (420)
General	High	High	7.7 (19)	15.9 (33)
		Low	26.7 (8)	32.8 (19)
	Low	High	18.7 (68)	23.6 (131)
		Low	28.4 (74)	35.0 (226)

in Table 3. A cursory inspection of the table indicates that females who come from highly educated parental families which are small in size have a 19 percent advantage over those female students whose parents are poorly educated but are from small families. This advantage in the two levels of parental education regarding study programme placement for females is also prevalent in large families (76.3 percent less 68.1 percent). These percentages can be observed by comparing cells two and four. However, these percentage differences may not be as advantageous as the actual numeric values indicate. A precise technique of testing these percentage differences is the weighted net percentage difference statistic.

#### TABLE 3

## THE EFFECTS OF PARENTAL EDUCATION AND FAMILY SIZE ON STUDY PROGRAMME OF A STUDENT FOR FEMALES

Study Programme	Parental Education	Family	y Size
fuent for	6.685	Small	Large
Academic	High	89.3 (725)	76.3 (826)
call Family Size	Low	70.4 (295)	68.1 (780)
General	High	10.7 (87)	23.7 (256)
	Low	29.6 (124)	31.9 (366)

45

Crosstabular analyses are conducted for female students

Table 4 presents the WNPD effect of parental education on study programme placement. The percentage advantage factor for male students whose parents are well educated over male students whose parents are poorly education in their chances of being placed on an academic study programme in high school is 6.68 percent when socio-economic status and family size are held constant. Similarly, the percentage advantage factor for females is 6.75 percent when family size is held constant. This finding is both statistically and substantively significant and consequently, the hypothesis is accepted.

#### TABLE 4

WNPD EFFECTS OF PARENTAL EDUCATION, SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS, FAMILY SIZE, AND AREA OF RESIDENCE ON THE STUDENT'S STUDY PROGRAMME

Percentage Advantage	W	IPD
Factor	Males	Females
High Parental Education	6.68%	6.75%
High Socio-economic Status	3.73%	**
Small Family Size	3.23%	4.95%
Urban Area of Residence	* prost ** - 00e	ale h). The pr <sub>**</sub> close coverses

\*\* Indicates non-significant relationship at the .01 level.

Hypothesis 2: Students whose families are of high socio-economic status origin will be more likely to be enrolled in the academic study programme than students whose families are of low socio-economic status origin. This relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

In Table 2 we can investigate the relationship between socioeconomic status and study programme placement when parental education and family size are held constant. Approximately 92 percent of the male students from high socio-economic status families whose parents are highly educated and come from small families are enrolled in the academic study programme. Similarly, 81.3 percent of male students from low socio-economic status families whose parents are highly educated and come from small families are enrolled in the academic study programme. This 11 percent difference appears to be statistically significant.

A similar crosstabular analysis for females separately is not conducted here because a low beta weight (B = 0.004) is recorded between socio-economic status and study programme placement.

The WNPD statistic is used to test the actual percentage advantage factor for the relationship between students from high socio-economic status families and study programme (Table 4). The percentage advantage factor for male students from high socio-economic status families over those males from low socio-economic status families in their chances of being placed in an academic study programme in school is 3.73 percent when parental education and family size are held constant. Because of a low

beta weight between socio-economic status and study programme for females, the relationship is not considered statistically significant. However, for male students, the relationship is statistically significant and consequently, the hypothesis is accepted (3.73 percent) for males. However, the hypothesis is rejected for female students.

<u>Hypothesis 3</u>: The larger the size of a student's family, the less likely is he to have enrolled in the academic study programme. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

In Table 2 we can investigate the relationship between family size and study programme for the male students in the sample. Approximately 92 percent of male students from small families whose parents are highly educated and who come from high socio-economic status families are enrolled in the academic study programme. However, of those male students who come from large families, but whose parents are highly educated and who come from high socio-economic status families, only 84.1 percent are enrolled in the academic study programme. This 8.1 percent difference appears to be of statistical significance.

Table 3 gives the percentage differences and cell Ns for the relationship between family size and study programme for females, when parental education is held constant. We observe in this table that 89.3 percent of females from small families, whose parents are highly educated, are enrolled in the academic study programme whereas 67.3 percent of those females who come from large families and whose parents are highly educated are enrolled in the academic study programme. This

13.0 percent difference for the effect of family size on study programme appears to be statistically significant.

Table 4 shows a test of significance of these percentage differences by using the weighted net percentage difference technique. The actual percentage advantage factor for the effect of male students from small families over those from large families in their chances of being on the academic study programme is 3.23 percent when parental education and socio-economic status are held constant. In a similar vein, the percentage advantage factor for female students is 4.95 percent when parental education is held constant. These two percentage advantage factors are statistically significant at the .01 level and, consequently, the hypothesis is accpeted for both males and females separately.

<u>Hypothesis 4</u>: Students who live in urban areas of Newfoundland will be more likely to be enrolled in the academic study programme than students living in rural areas. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

The relationship between area of residence and study programme was analysed by Bulcock (1975:18-25) using the same data. A low beta weight (B = 0.025) was recorded for male students between area of residence and study programme placement. As a result, this particular relationship was omitted from crosstabular analyses. Thus, there is no advantage factor for male students from urban areas and, as a result, the hypothesis is rejected. Similarly, the beta weight for females (B = 0.001) was found to be negligible in this particular relationship. Thus the hypothesis is rejected for female students.

#### Results Related to Self-Concept of Academic Ability

In this section of the chapter, hypotheses 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 will be discussed. Some of the relationships were found to have low path coefficients when a preliminary analysis was conducted using multiple regression analysis. As a result, these statistically weak relationships were omitted from the crosstabular tables in this study and thus, from the WNPD analysis.

<u>Hypothesis 5</u>: Students whose parents are highly educated will be more likely to have a high self-concept of academic ability than students whose parents are poorly educated. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both male and female students.

Table 5 indicates the effect of parental education on self-concept of academic ability when family size and study programme are simultaneously held constant for males. A comparison of cells one and five reveals that 66.9 percent of male students whose parents are highly educated and who come from families that are small in size and on the academic study programme, have a high self-concept of academic ability. Similarly, of those students whose parents are poorly educated but come from small families and are enrolled in the academic study programme, only 48.8 percent have a high self-concept of academic ability. This 18.1 percent difference resulting from the two levels of parental education appears to be statistically significant.

## TABLE 5

THE EFFECTS OF PARENTAL EDUCATION, STUDY PROGRAMME AND FAMILY SIZE ON THE SELF-CONCEPT OF ACADEMIC ABILITY OF A STUDENT FOR MALES

Self-Concept of Academic Ability	Parental Education	Study Programme	Family Small	Size Large
High	High	Academic	66.9 (485)	57.5 (475)
		General	26.4 (23)	30.1 (77)
	Low	Academic	48.8 (144)	47.8 (373)
s6.9 percent of	the females w	General	28.2 (35)	31.1 (114)
Low other the	High	Academic	33.1 (240)	42.5 (351)
		General	72.4 (63)	69.9 (179)
its significant	Low	Academic	51.2 (151)	52.2 (407)
	enic obility.	General	71.8 (89)	68.9 (252)

The relationship between parental education and self-concept of academic ability is considered for female students in Table 6. The preliminary regression analysis indicated a small relationship (B = -0.033) between family size and self-concept of academic ability for girls. As a result, the family size variable was omitted from this crosstabular analysis.

Table 6 indicates the relationship between parental education and self-concept of academic ability is examined by controlling the effects of study programme, socio-economic status and area of residence. Sixtytwo percent of the girls whose parents are highly educated, of high socio-economic status, from urban areas and enrolled in the academic programme, have a high self-concept academic ability. On the other hand, 56.9 percent of the females whose parents are poorly educated but alike on the other three factors, have a high self-concept of academic ability. This 4.9 percent difference appears to be statistically significant at the .01 level. However, the WNPD statistic is used in Table 7 to test its significance.

Table 7 presents the WNPD effect of parental education on selfconcept of academic ability. The percentage advantage factor for male students whose parents are highly educated over male students whose parents are poorly educated is 2.80 percent in their chances of having a high self-concept of academic ability when study programme and family size are held constant. Similarly, the percentage advantage factor for female students is 1.56 percent when study programme, area of residence and socio-economic status are held constant. These two findings are significant at the .01 level and consequently, the hypothesis is accepted for both male and female students.

#### TABLE 6

## THE EFFECTS OF PARENTAL EDUCATION, SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS, RURAL-URBAN AREA OF RESIDENCE AND STUDY PROGRAMME ON THE SELF-CONCEPT OF ACADEMIC ABILITY FOR FEMALES

Self-Concept of Academic Ability	Parental Education	Study Programme	SES	Urban	Rural
High	High	Academic	High	61.8 (261)	55.8 (169)
		Malles	Low	71.3 (181)	72.8 (110)
		General	High	37.6 (32)	38.8 (47)
		88	Low	24.1 (7)	34.8 (8)
	Low	Academic	High	56.9 (82)	53.3 (251)
			Low	40.9 (9)	50.0 (20)
		General	High	35.6 (26)	30.0 (69)
			Low	66.7 (6)	22.2 (4)
Low	High	Academic	High	38.2 (161)	44.2 (134)
			Low	28.7 (73)	27.2 (41)
		General	High	62.4 (53)	61.2 (74)
			Low	75.9 (22)	65.2 (15)
	Low	Academic	High	43.1 (62)	46.7 (220)
			Low	59.1 (13)	50.0 (20)
		General	High	64.4 (47)	70.0 (161)
_			Low	33.3 (3)	77.8 (14)
			and the second sec	Contraction of the second second	

#### TABLE 7

WNPD EFFECTS OF PARENTAL EDUCATION, FAMILY SIZE, SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS, AREA OF RESIDENCE, AND STUDY PROGRAMME ON THE STUDENT'S ACADEMIC SELF-CONCEPT

Percentage	WNPD		
Advantage Factor	Males	Females	
High Parental Education	2.80%	1.56%	
High Socio-Economic Status	**	1.77%	
Small Family Size	**	and puren **	
Urban Area of Residence	**	are of h <sub>**</sub> socio-sconesi	
Academic Study Programme	3.92%	1.81%	

percent difference is to be an advantage for females from low socio-

\*\* Indicates non-significant relationships at the .01 level.

<u>Hypothesis 6</u>: Students who come from high socio-economic status families will be more likely to have a high self-concept than students who come from low socio-economic status families. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

considered statistically insightficant at the .01

The relationship between socio-economic status and self-concept of academic ability is investigated for female students. Table 6 shows that the effect of socio-economic status on self-concept of academic ability can be viewed by controlling for the other variables in the table, area of residence, study programme, and parental education. Approximately 62 percent of the females who are of high socio-economic status origin, whose parents are highly educated, are from urban areas, and are enrolled in the academic study programme, have a high selfconcept of academic ability. However, 71.3 percent of the girls from low socio-economic status families but are high on the other three variables, have a high self-concept of academic ability. This 9.5 percent difference is to be an advantage for females from low socioeconomic status families. However, these percentage differences are tested in Table 7 for the actual percentage advantage factors by the WNPD technique.

A similar crosstabular display for the effect of socio-economic status on self-concept of academic ability for male students is not reported. In a preliminary multiple regression analysis for this relationship, a low beta weight (B = -0.05) was recorded and consequently,

the relationship is considered statistically insignificant at the .01 level and as a result, the hypothesis is rejected for male students.

Table 7 presents the WNPD effect of socio-economic status on selfconcept of academic ability. The percentage advantage factor for female students from high socio-economic status families over females from low socio-economic status families is 1.77 percent in their chances of having a high self-concept of academic ability when area of residence, sutdy programme, and parental education are held constant. Consequently, the hypothesis is accepted for female students.

<u>Hypothesis 7</u>: Students who come from large families will be less likely to have a high self-concept of academic ability than students who come from small families. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for males and females.

Table 5 reveals the effect of family size on self-concept of academic ability, for male students, when parental education and study programme are simultaneously controlled. A comparison of cells one and two indicate that 66.9 percent of males from small families whose parents are highly educated, and who are enrolled in the academic study programme, have a high self-concept of academic ability. However, 57.5 percent of males from large families, whose parents are well educated and who are enrolled in the academic study programme, have a high self-concept of academic ability. This 9.4 percent difference for males from small families is tested in Table 7 using the WNPD statistic.

The relationship between family size and self-concept of academic ability for females is not investigated in crosstabular tables. A

multiple regression analysis for this relationship was conducted in a preliminary study and a small beta coefficient (B = -0.033) was recorded. Consequently, it was decided to omit this relationship from the crosstabular analyses.

Table 7 presents the WNPD effect of family size on self-concept of academic ability for males. However, the table indicates no significant statistical relationships at the .01 level for either group of students. Consequently, the hypothesis is rejected for both male and female students.

<u>Hypothesis 8</u>: Students who live in urban areas of Newfoundland will be more likely to have a high academic self-concept than those students living in rural areas. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

Table 6 shows the relationship between area of residence and selfconcept of academic ability for females when socio-economic status, study programme, and parental education are simultaneously held constant. A comparison of cells one and two reveals that 61.8 percent of the students from urban areas whose parents are highly educated, are of high socio-economic status background, and are enrolled in the academic study programme, have a high self-concept of academic ability. Similarly, of those students who are from rural areas, but alike on the other three Variables above, 58.8 percent have a high self-concept of academic ability. This 3 percent difference is tested in Table 7, using the WNPD technique, for statistical significance at the .01 level.

A similar crosstabular analysis for male students was not conducted because of a preliminary analysis involving multiple regression in which the relationship between area of residence and self-concept of academic ability indicated a statistically insignificant effect (B = 0.029). Consequently, the hypothesis is rejected for male students.

A measure of association between the percentage differences in Table 7 is calculated for females only using the WNPD technique. However, the percentage difference for females from urban and rural areas, is not statistically significant at the .01 level, regarding self-concept of academic ability. Thus, the hypothesis is also rejected for females.

<u>Hypothesis 9</u>: Students who are enrolled in the academic study programme in high school will be more likely to have a high self-concept of academic ability than students who are enrolled in the general study programme. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

Table 5 shows the effect of study programme on self-concept of academic ability controlling for parental education, and family size. A comparison of cells one and three indicates that 66.9 percent of male students who are enrolled in the academic study programme have a high self-concept of academic ability when family size and parental education are simultaneously controlled. In a similar vein, only 26.4 percent of the students in the general study programme have a high self-concept of academic ability when family size, and parental education are held

constant. This 40.5 percent difference in the two study programmes will be statistically significant.

A similar crosstabular display for female students is presented in Table 6. A comparison of cells one and five shows that 61.8 percent of female students on the academic study programme have a high selfconcept of academic ability when parental education, area of residence, and socio-economic status are held constant. Similarly, 37.6 percent of the females on the general study programme have a high self-concept of academic ability when parental education, area of residence, and socio-economic status are simultaneously controlled. The resulting 24.2 percent is statistically significant beyond the .01 level (Table 7).

Table 7 presents the WNPD effects of study programme on self-concept of academic ability. The percentage advantage factor for male students who are enrolled in the academic study programme over males who are enrolled in the general study programme in their chances of having a high self-concept of academic ability is 3.92 percent when parental education and family size are held constant. Similarly, the percentage advantage factor for females is 1.81 percent when parental education, socio-economic status and area of residence are held constant. These two WNPDs are statistically and substantively significant. Consequently, the hypothesis is accepted for both males and females.

#### Results Related to Occupational Expectations

In this section of the chpater hypotheses 10 through 15 will be examined. As was the case in the previous section of this chapter, some

of the relationships were found to have low path coefficients (Bulcock, 1975:18-24). Consequently, these relationships have been excluded from the crosstabular analyses presented in Tables 8 and 9. They have also been omitted from the WNPD analysis presented in Table 10.

<u>Hypothesis 10</u>: Students whose parents are highly educated will be more likely to have high occupational expectations than students whose parents are poorly educated. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

In a preliminary, multiple regression analysis, the relationship between parental education and occupational expectations was investigated. For male students, a low beta coefficient (0.050) was recorded when socio-economic status, family size, area of residence, study programme and self-concept of academic ability are controlled. This indicated that the above relationship was not statistically significant and as a result, this relationship was omitted from the crosstabular analysis.

A similar result was obtained when the relationship was analysed for female students separately. The beta weight in this case was also very modest (0.042). Consequently, this relationship was not analysed in crosstabular form for female students. Thus, hypothesis 10 is rejected for both male and female students.

<u>Hypothesis 11</u>: Students who come from high socio-economic status families will be more likely to have high occupational expectations than students
who come from low socio-economic status families. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .Ol level for both male and female students.

A crosstabular analysis for the effect of socio-economic status on occupational expectations is conducted for males separately in Table 8. A comparison of cells one and two show that 75.7 percent of males from high socio-economic status families have high occupational expectations while only 59.9 percent of males from low socio-economic status families have high occupational expectations. This relationship is investigated by holding constant family size, study programme and self-concept of academic ability. This 15.8 percent difference may be substantively significant and will be tested in the WNPD analysis (Table 10).

Table 9 shows the effect of socio-economic status on occupational expectations for female students separately when study programme and self-concept of academic ability are simultaneously controlled. A comparison of cells one and two indicates that 81.7 percent of females from high socio-economic status families, who are enrolled in the academic study programme and have a high self-concept of academic ability, have high occupational expectations. However, 75.9 percent of females from low socio-economic status families have high occupational expectations, when study programme and self-concept of academic ability are held constant. This 5.8 percent difference in levels of socio-economic status may be significant although a test of significance will be conducted in Table 10.

# THE EFFECTS OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS, FAMILY SIZE, STUDY PROGRAMME AND SELF-CONCEPT OF ACADEMIC ABILITY ON THE OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS OF MALE STUDENTS

Occupational Expectations	Self-Concept of Academic Ability	Study Programme	Family Size	Socio-Ecc High	nomic Status Low
High	High	Academic	Small	75.7 (109)	59.9 (136)
		General	Large	73.2 (82)	44.8 (150)
		General	Small	50.0 (2)	35.3 (12)
		General	Large	53.8 (7)	32.6 (30)
	Low	Academic	Small	51.7 (30)	30.1 (46)
			Large	54.9 (28)	26.9 (71)
		General	Small	23.5 (4)	25.7 (.8)
		Acadebio	Large	36.0 (9)	13.3 (20)
Low	High	Academic	Small	24.3 (35)	40.1 (91)
			Large	26.8 (30)	55.2 (185)
		General	Small	50.0 (2)	64.7 (22)
			Large	46.2 (6)	67.4 (62)
	Low	Academic	Small	48.3 (28)	69.9 (107)
			Large	45.1 (23)	73.1 (193)
•		General	Small	76.5 (13)	74.3 (52)
			Large	64.0 (16)	86.7 (130)

# THE EFFECTS OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS, STUDY PROGRAMME AND SELF-CONCEPT OF ACADEMIC ABILITY ON THE OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS OF FEMALE STUDENTS

Occupational Expectations	Self-Concept of Academic Ability	Study Programme	Socio-Economic High	Status Low
High	High	Academic	81.7 (183)	75.9 (457)
		General	50.0 (4)	40.5 (32)
	Low	Academic	70.2 (66)	67.6 (309)
at the .01 lev	and thus, hypoth	General	38.5 (10)	49.0 (102)
Low	High	Academic	18.3 (41)	24.1 (145)
	The larger the size	General	50.0 (4)	59.5 (47)
	Low	Academic	<b>29.8</b> (28)	32.4 (148)
		General	61.5 (16)	51.0 (106)

tions for male students only. Cells one and three show that 72.7 percent of males from small families have high occupational expectations when socio-economic status, study programs, and self-connept of scadenic ability are held constant. Similarly, 73.2 percent of nales from large families have high occupational expectations when socio-economic status, study programs and self-concept of academic ability are controlled. This 2.5 percent advantage for males from small families may not be Table 10 presents the WNPD effects of socio-economic status on occupational expectations. The percentage advantage factor for male students who come from high socio-economic status families over males who come from low socio-economic status families in their chances of having high occupational expectations is 3.60 percent, when family size, study programme and self-concept of academic ability are simultaneously held constant. In a similar vein, the percentage advantage factor for female students is 1.84 percent when study programme and self-concept of academic ability are held constant. These two WNPDs are significant at the .01 level and thus, hypothesis 11 is accepted for both males and females.

<u>Hypothesis 12</u>: The larger the size of a student's family, the less likely he will be to have high occupational expectations. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

Table 8 presents the effect of family size on occupational expectations for male students only. Cells one and three show that 75.7 percent of males from small families have high occupational expectations when socio-economic status, study programme, and self-concept of academic ability are held constant. Similarly, 73.2 percent of males from large families have high occupational expectations when socio-economic status, study programme and self-concept of academic ability are controlled. This 2.5 percent advantage for males from small families may not be statistically significant at the .01 level when the WNPD is calculated.

WNPD EFFECTS OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS, FAMILY SIZE, STUDY PROGRAMME AND SELF-CONCEPT OF ACADEMIC ABILITY ON STUDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS

Percentage	WNPD			
Factor	Males	Females		
High Parental Education	**	**		
High Socio-Economic Status	3.60%	1.84%		
Small Family Size	**	**		
Urban Area of Residence	**	**		
Academic Study Programme	**	11.16%		
High Self-Concept of Academic Ability	**	3.59%		

\*\* Indicates non-significant relationships at the .Ol level.

pre likely to have high occupational expectations than students from

between area of residence and occupational expectations was carried out

The effect of family size on occupational expectations of females is not included in crosstabular analysis. A multiple regression analysis indicated, in a preliminary analysis, that there was a very low statistical relationship (B = -.018) between family size and occupational expectations for female students. As a result, the analysis of this relationship was omitted.

Table 10 indicates that the percentage advantage factors for both males and females from small families over males and females from large families, in their chances of having high occupational expectations, are not statistically significant at the .01 level. Consequently, the hypothesis is rejected.

<u>Hypothesis 13</u>: Students who live in urban areas of Newfoundland will be more likely to have high occupational expectations than students from rural areas. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

In a preliminary multiple regression analysis, the relationship between area of residence and occupational expectations was carried out to determine its significance. An analysis was completed for male students and a small effect (B = 0.026) was found. As a result, this relationship was omitted from crosstabular analysis.

A similar finding was recorded when the relationship was analysed for female students separately. The multiple regression indicated that the relationship was also small (B=0.026). Thus, the relationship was also omitted from crosstabular analyses for female students.

Consequently, hypothesis 13 is rejected for both male and female students.

Hypothesis 14: Students who are enrolled in the academic study programme in high school will be more likely to have high occupational expectations than students enrolled in the general study programme. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for males and females.

Table 8 reveals the effect of study programme on occupational expectations for male students when socio-economic status, family size, and self-concept of academic ability are simultaneously controlled. A comparison of cells two and six indicate that 59.9 percent of males on the academic study programme have high occupational expectations when socio-economic status, family size, and self-concept of academic ability are held constant. In a similar vein, 35.3 percent of male students on the general study programme have high occupational expectations when socio-economic status, family size and self-concept of academic ability are held constant. This 24.6 percent difference appears to be significant although the cell Ns are small in number (148). However, the WNPD statistic will be used to determine its actual percentage advantage.

Table 9 shows the relationship between study programme and occupational expectations for females separately when socio-economic status, and self-concept of academic ability are simultaneously controlled. Approximately 82 percent of females who are on the academic study programme have high occupational expectations when self-concept and socioeconomic status are held constant. Similarly, of those females on the

general study programme, 50.0 percent have high occupational expectations when self-concept and socio-economic status are held constant. This 31.7 percent difference appears to be statistically significant.

Table 10 presents the WNPD effects of study programme on occupational expectations. The table indicates that the percentage advantage factor for female students on the academic study programme over females on the general study programme in their chances of having high occupational expectations is 11.16 percent when socio-economic status and self-concept of academic ability are held constant. However, the percentage advantage factor for male students separately is statistically insignigicant. Thus, hypothesis 14 is accepted for the female students and rejected for the male students.

<u>Hypothesis 15</u>: Students who have a high self-concept of academic ability will be more likely to have high occupational expectations than students who have a low self-concept of academic ability. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for males and females.

Table 8 shows the effect of self-concept of academic ability on occupational expectations for male students when socio-economic status, family size, and study programme are simultaneously controlled. A comparison of cells one (75.7 percent) and nine (51.7) percent) in this table indicate that males with a high self-concept of academic ability have a 24 percent advantage over males with a low academic self-concept in their chances of having high occupational expectations when socioeconomic status, family size and study programme are held constant.

Table 9 shows the effect of self-concept of academic ability on occupational expectations for female students when socio-economic status and study programme are simultaneously controlled. A comparison of cells one and five indicate that 81.7 percent of females with a high selfconcept of academic ability have high occupational expectations when socio-economic status and study programme are held constant. Similarly, 70.2 percent of the females with a low self-concept of academic ability, have high occupational expectations. This 11.5 percent advantage for females with high academic self-concept appears to be of substantive significance.

Table 10 shows the WNPD effects of self-concept of academic ability on occupational expectations. The table indicates that the percentage advantage factor for females with a high self-concept of academic ability over females with a low self-concept of academic ability in their chances of having high occupational expectations is 3.59 percent when socioeconomic status and study programme are held constant. However, the percentage advantage factor for male students with a high self-concept of ability is statistically insignificant at the .QL level, as shown in Table 10. Thus, the hypothesis is accepted for the female students but rejected for male students.

#### Results Related to Post-Secondary School Plans

In this section of the chapter hypotheses 16 through 22 will be tested. The dependent variable in this section is post-secondary school plans; the independent variables are parental education, socio-economic status, family size, area of residence, study programme, self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations.

The related literature review indicated significant direct relationships between parental education, socio-economic status, area of residence and post-secondary school plans. In view of this, each of these three background variables will be dealt with separately in relation to post-secondary school plans by simultaneously controlling for family size, study programme, self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations. This procedure is necessary in order to show the independent effect of each of these three background variables on post-secondary school plans. One of the crosstabular analyses examines the relationship between parental education and postsecondary school plans when simulatneously controlling for family size, study programme, self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations. A second crosstabular analysis examines the effect of socio-economic status, family size, study programme, academic selfconcept and occupational expectations upon post-secondary school plans. The third crosstabular analysis examines the relationship between area of residence, family size, study programme, self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations, upon post-secondary school plans. Separate analyses are conducted for the males and the females.

Tables 11 and 12 show the effect of parental education on postsecondary school plans for male and female students. A similar analysis in Tables 14 and 15 will deal with the effect of socio-economic status on post-secondary school plans by simultaneously controlling for family size, study programme, academic self-concept, and occupational expectations for the male and female students. Finally, a separate analysis

for the effect of area of residence on post-secondary school plans, controlling for family size, study programme, self-concept of ability, and occupational expectations will be investigated in Tables 16 and 17.

Finally, Table 13 will deal with the WNPD effects of the variables on post-secondary school plans in order to obtain the most precise measure of the relationships. The WNPDs will be calculated for male and female students.

<u>Hypothesis 16</u>: Students whose parents are highly educated will be more likely to have post-secondary school plans than students whose parents are poorly educated. We hypothesize that this relationship is significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

Table 11 presents the effect of parental education on postsecondary school plans of male students when family size, study programme, academic self-concept and occupational expectations are held constant. A comparison of cells one and two indicate that 95.4 percent of males from highly educated parental families have high post-secondary school plans while 94.4 percent of those students whose parents are poorly educated have similar plans. This 1.0 percent advantage for males from highly educated families may not be statistically significant.

Table 12 shows the relationship between parental education and post-secondary school plans of females when family size, study programme, academic self-concept and occupational expectations are held constant. Cells one and two indicate that 96.8 percent of females from highly

educated parental families have high post-secondary school plans. In a similar vein, 94.1 percent of females from poorly educated parental families have high post-secondary school plans. This 2.7 percent difference in levels of parental education does not appear to be statistically significant.

Table 13 presents the WNPD effect of parental education on post-secondary school plans for males and females. The percentage advantage factor for female students from highly educated parental families over females from poorly educated parental families in their chances of having post-secondary school plans is 1.73 percent when family size, study programme, academic self-concept and occupational expectations are simultaneously controlled. Similarly, the percentage advantage factor for male students is 1.15 percent. Thus, the hypothesis is accepted for female students but rejected for male students at the .01 level.

	.(2)		
	39.3 (11)		
		30.6	

THE EFFECTS OF PARENTAL EDUCATION, FAMILY SIZE, STUDY PROGRAMME, SELF-CONCEPT OF ACADEMIC ABILITY, OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS ON THE POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL PLANS OF MALE STUDENTS

				Family Size			
Post- Sec. Sch. Plans	Occ. Exp.	Self- Concept of Abil.	Study Programme	Sma High Par. Educ.	ll Low Par. Educ.	Larg High Par. Educ.	e Low Par. Educ.
High	High	High	Academic	95.4 (245)	94.4 (135)	90.8 (186)	88.7 (159)
			General	68.4 (13)	85.7 (12)	87.2 (41)	66.0 (33)
		Low	Academic	89.2 (174)	89.4 (84)	84.8 (135)	82.3
	122.49		General	79.2 (19)	78.3 (36)	74.6 (47)	79.8 (67)
	Low	High	Academic	83.7 (159)	76.3 (61)	81.7 (101)	80.2 (118)
			General	66.7 (18)	60.7 (17)	59.4 (38)	72.0 (67)
		Low	Academic	66.5 (87)	73.5 (75)	70.7 (112)	66.5 (107)
			General	66.1 (39)	63.0 (34)	69.4 (93)	59.2 (126)
Low	High	High	Academic	4.6 (26)	5.6 (8)	9.2 (45)	11.3 (33)
			General	31.6 (6)	14.3	12.8 (6)	34.0 (17)
		Low	Academic	10.8 (21)	10.6 (10)	15.2 (35)	17.7 (38)
			General	20.8 (5)	21.7 (10)	25.4 (16)	20.2 (17)
	Low	High	Academic	16.3 (31)	23.8 (19)	18.3 (45)	19.8 (44)
			General	33.3 (9)	39.3 (11)	40.6 (26)	28.0 (26)
		Low	Academic	33.5	26.5	29.3 (67)	33.5 (79)
			General	33.9 (20)	37.0 (20)	30.6 (41)	40.8 (87)

THE EFFECTS OF PARENTAL EDUCATION, FAMILY SIZE, STUDY PROGRAMME, SELF-CONCEPT OF ACADEMIC ABILITY, OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS ON THE POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL PLANS OF FEMALE STUDENTS

				I	Family S	ize	
				Small		Large	9
Post-		Self-		High	Low	High	Low
Sec. Sch.	Occ.	Concept	Study	Par.	Par.	Par.	Par.
Plans	Exp.	of Abil.	Programme	Educ.	Educ.	Educ.	Educ.
High	High	High	Academic	96.8	94.1	95.3	92.4
				(175)	(160)	(275)	(163)
			General	81.5	94.5	78.6	73.0
		r <del>office of the</del>	- and the street	(14)	.(8)	(33)	(9)
		Low	Academic	91.7	89.4	68.6	88.4
			0	1071	(05)	(150)	(110)
		CARLENT CUR	General	(29)	(6)	(78)	(19)
	Low	High	Academic	85.0	80.1	91.8	88.7
			-	(39)	(32)	(101)	(60)
			General	68.5	65.7	70.3	50.8
				(6)	(2)	(38)	(4)
		Low	Academic	78.9	48.2	70.3	65.2
				(40)	(16)	(71)	(48)
			General	77.3	60.2	64.5	60.3
anga Socio-	-Econom	Lo Status		(20)	(6)	(54)	(40)
Low	High	High	Academic	3.2	5.9	4.7	7.6
				(6)	(11)	(14)	(18)
			General	18.5.	4.6	21.4	2.7
		100000		(2)	(7)	(8)	(4)
		Low	Academic	8.3	10.6	31.4	11.6
				(8)	(10)	(29)	(16)
			General	(8)	(6)	(10)	(4)
				(0)	(0)	(10)	
	Low	High	Academic	15.0	19.9	8.2	11.3
			Conoral	(6)	(10)	20.7	50.0
			General	(4)	(1)	(15)	(4)
		Low	Academic	21.1	51.8	29.7	34.8
				(8)	(18)	(36)	(19)
			General	22.7	39.8	35.5	39.7
				(5)	(2)	(18)	(24)

WNPD EFFECTS OF PARENTAL EDUCATION, SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS, AREA OF RESIDENCE, FAMILY SIZE, STUDY PROGRAMME, SELF-CONCEPT OF ACADEMIC ABILITY, AND OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS ON THE POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL PLANS OF HIGH SCHOOL YOUTH

Percentage	WNPD			
Factor	Males	Females		
High Parental Education	1.15% (**)	1.73%		
High Socio-Economic Status	0.39% (**)	0.52% (**)		
Small Family Size	1.71%	1.83%		
Urban Area of Residence	-1.67%	-2.90%		
Academic Study Programme	7.93%	7.96%		
High Academic Self-Concept	4.42%	4.29%		
High Occupational Expectations	7.84%	9.01%		

\*\* Indicates nonsignificant relationships at the .01 level.

<u>Hypothesis 17</u>: Students who come from high socio-economic status families will be more likely to have post-secondary school plans than students who come from low socio-economic status families. This relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both male and female students.

Table 14 presents the effect of socio-economic status on postsecondary school plans for male students when family size, study programme, self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations are simultaneously controlled. A comparison of cells one and two indicates that 94.8 percent of males from high socio-economic status families have post-secondary school plans while 96.7 percent of males from low socio-economic status families have similar plans. This finding is apparent when family size, study programme, academic self-concept and occupational expectations are held constant. This 1.9 percent difference is in the reverse direction to that hypothesized, but because the magnitude is small, the effect does not appear to be statistically significant.

The exact procedure is presented in Table 15 for the effect of socio-economic status on post-secondary school plans for female students only. This table indicates that 96.7 percent of males from high socioeconomic status families have high post-secondary school plans while 93.2 percent of students from low socio-economic status families have high post-secondary school plans when family size, study programme, academic self-concept and occupational expectations are held constant. Whether these percentage differences are considered significant will depend upon the WNPDs presented in Table 13.

THE EFFECTS OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS, FAMILY SIZE, STUDY PROGRAMME, SELF-CONCEPT OF ACADEMIC ABILITY, OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS ON THE POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL PLANS OF MALE STUDENTS

Post-		Self-		Small	Family Size Small Large		
Sec. Sch. Plans	Occ. Exp.	Concept of Abil.	Study Programme	High SES	Low SES	High SES	Low SES
High	High	High	Academic	94.8 (209)	96.7 (203)	89.4 (172)	94.5 (156)
			General	77.8 (14)	100.0 (3)	69.1 (38)	90.0 (9)
		Low	Academic	89.0 (146)	90.6 (48)	84.2 (223)	76.7 (56)
			General	78.7 (37)	50.0 (3)	81,3 (74)	58.8 (10)
	Low	High	Academic	77.6 (111)	79.6 (243)	79.8 (221)	83.0 (44)
			General	58.8 (20)	100.0 (3)	68.0 (66)	55.6 (5)
		Low	Academic	70.1 (110)	76.3 (29)	68.8 (201)	70.0
			General	72.4 (55)	52.9 (9)	61.7 (127)	65.5 (19)
Low	High	High	Academic	5.2 (17)	3.3	10.6	5.5 (9)
		-	General	22.2 (4)	0.0	30.9 (17)	10.0 (1)
		Low	Academic	11.0 (18)	9.4 (5)	15.8 (42)	23.3
			General	21.3 (10)	50.0 (3)	18.7 (17)	41.2 (7)
	Low	High	Academic	22.4	20.4	20.2	17.0
			General	41.2 (14)	0.0	32.0 (31)	44.4 (4)
		Low	Academic	29.9	23.7	31.2 (91)	30.0
			General	27.6 (21)	47.1 (8)	38.3 (79)	34.5 (10)

THE EFFECTS OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS, FAMILY SIZE, STUDY PROGRAMME, SELF-CONCEPT OF ACADEMIC ABILITY, OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS ON THE POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL PLANS OF FEMALE STUDENTS

Post- Sec. Sch. Plans	Occ. Exp.	Self- Concept of Abil.	Study Programme	Small High SES	Family Low SES	Size High SES	Large Low SES
High	High	High	Academic General	96.7 (195) 66.2	93.2 (192) 88.3 (6)	91.3 (270) 88.2 (125)	84.2 (280) 63.1
		Low	Academic	87.3 (91)	87.8 (80)	85.2 (152)	80.1 (101)
			General	(21)	(89)	(73)	(21)
	Low	High	Academic	81.8 (35)	74.2 (42)	80.6	82.2 (56)
		ve post-sec	General	65.4 (2)	61.9 (3)	57.4 (28)	70.0 (15)
		Low	Academic	64.3 (30)	70.5	73.2	62.1 (32)
and Icable			General	66.0 (12)	65.6 (15)	.67.3 (56)	57.4 (27)
Low	High	High	Academic	3.3 (44)	6.8	8.7	15.8
		that 92.5 p	General	33.8	11.7	11.8 (4)	36.9 (1)
		Low	Academic	12.7	12.2	14.8	19.9
	de lo te	lity, and	General	23.8 (7)	22.9 (18)	26.5	19.2 (12)
	Low	High	Academic	18.2	25.8	19.4	17.8
		avea of rea	General	34.6	38.1 (3)	42.6	30.0 (4)
		Low	Academic	35.7	29.5	26.8	37.9
appear to 1			General	34.0 (11)	34.4 (16)	32.7 (22)	42.6 (24)

In Table 13 the WNPD effects of socio-economic status on postsecondary school plans are presented for male and female students. The percentage advantage factor for male students from high socio-economic status families over males from low socio-economic status families in their chances of having high post-secondary school plans is 0.39% when family size, study programme, academic self-concept and occupational expectations are simultaneously controlled. Similarly, the percentage advantage factor for female students is 0.52%. Neither of these WNPDs are statistically significant at the .01 level. Consequently, hypothesis 17 is rejected for both male and female students.

<u>Hypothesis 18</u>: The larger the size of a student's family, the less likely he is to have post-secondary school plans. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

Table 16 presents the relationship between family size and postsecondary school plans for male students. A comparison of cells two and four indicate that 92.5 percent of males from small families have high post-secondary school plans when area of residence, study programme, self-concept of ability, and occupational expectations are held constant. Similarly, 84.1 percent of males from large families have post-secondary school plans when area of residence, study programme, academic selfconcept and occupational expectations are simultaneously controlled. This 8.4 percent difference in size of family for male students does appear to be statistically significant.

THE EFFECTS OF FAMILY SIZE, RURAL-URBAN AREA OF RESIDENCE, STUDY PROGRAMME, SELF-CONCEPT OF ACADEMIC ABILITY, OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS ON THE POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL PLANS OF MALE STUDENTS

Post- Sec. Sch.	Occ.	Self- Concept	Study	Small	Family 1	Size Large	01
Plans	Exp.	of Abil.	Programme	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
High	High	High	Academic	93.4 (114)	92.5 (185)	87.6 (134)	84.1 (143)
arre familie			General	64.3 (9)	75.0 (3)	85.7 (24)	57.9 (11)
		Low	Academic	83.3 (35)	86.4 (57)	72.0 (54)	73.3 (44)
	tint.	The 6.9 per	General	88.9 (16)	50.0 (5)	75.9 (22)	36.4 (4)
	Low	High	Academic	79.5 (66)	80.0 (72)	75.9 (132)	76.2
			General	73.7 (14)	50.0 (10)	61.9 (39)	68.6 (24)
encol glans	cor mpl	Low	Academic	75.9 (85)	62.3 (48)	65.0 (115)	62.9 (66)
factor for me	de stud	ents from a	General	69.4 (34)	50.0 (15)	66.2 (96)	63.5 (47)
Low	High	High	Academic	6.6 (8)	7.5 (15)	12.4 (19)	15.9
			General	35.7 (5)	25.0 (1)	14.3 (4)	42.1 (8)
		Low	Academic	16.7 (7)	13.6	28.0 (21)	27.7 (16)
	ivantage	factor for	General	11.1 (2)	50.0 (5)	24.1 (7)	63.6 (7)
	Low	High	Academic	20.5	20.0	24.1 (42)	23.8
			General	26.3	50.0 (10)	38.1 (24)	31.4 (11)
Divisio 1		Low	Academic	24.1 (27)	37.7 (29)	35.0 (69)	37.1 (39)
			General	30.6 (15)	50.0 (15)	33.8 (49)	36.5 (27)

Table 17 presents the crosstabular analysis of the relationship between family size and post-secondary school plans for female students. A comparison of cells two and four indicate that 96.4 percent of females . from small families have high post-secondary school plans when area of residence, study programme, self-concept of ability, and occupational expectations are held constant while 89.5 percent of females from large families have high post-secondary school plans when area of residence, study programme, self-concept and occupational expectations are held constant. The 6.9 percent advantage for females from small families does appear to be statistically significant.

Table 13 presents the WNPD effects of family size on post-secondary school plans for male and female students. The percentage advantage factor for male students from small families over males from large families in their chances of having post-secondary school plans is 1.7 percent when area of residence, study programme, self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations are held constant. Similarly, the percentage advantage factor for female students is 1.83 percent. Both of these WNPDs are significant beyond the .01 level and as a result, hypothesis 18 is accepted for both male and female students.

<u>Hypothesis 19</u>: Students who live in urban areas of Newfoundland will be more likely to have post-secondary school plans than students living in rural areas. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

THE EFFECTS OF FAMILY SIZE, RURAL-URBAN AREA OF RESIDENCE, STUDY PROGRAMME, SELF-CONCEPT OF ACADEMIC ABILITY, OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS ON THE POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL PLANS OF FEMALE STUDENTS

Post- Sec. Sch.	Occ.	Self- Concept	Study	Smal	Family S	Family Size		
Plans	Exp.	of Abil.	Programme	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	
High	High	High	Academic	97.8 (180)	96.4 (187)	95.4 (267)	89.5 (153)	
		nte a statil	General	80.0 (8)	100.0	78.9 (30)	72.7 (8)	
		Low	Academic	91.7 (88)	93.8 (75)	89.4 (161)	87.8 (108)	
	eau huve	post-secon	General	74.2 (23)	100.0 (11)	85.7 (72)	69.9 (16)	
	Low	High	Academic	81.8 (36)	84.6 (44)	90.6 (96)	87.1 (54)	
		rly, 96.4 p	General	70.0 (7)	66.7 (4)	75.6 (34)	53.8 (7)	
		Low	Academic	77.8 (35)	52.5 (21)	81.3 (91)	63.3 (38)	
			General	76.2 (16)	61.5 (8)	61.3 (46)	58.8 (30)	
Low	High	High	Academic	2.2 (4)	3.6 (7)	4.6 (13)	10.5 (18)	
		r nele stud	General	20.0 (2)	0.0	21.1 (8)	27.3 (3)	
		Low	Academic	8.3 (8)	6.3 (5)	10.6	12.2	
	n family	size, stud	General	25.8 (8)	0.0	14.3 (12)	30.4	
	Low	High	Academic	18.3 (8)	15.4 (8)	9.4	12.9 (8)	
		todents is	General	30.0 (3)	33.3 (2)	24.4 (11)	46.2 (6)	
		Low	Academic	22.2 (10)	47.5	18.8 (21)	36.7	
			General	23.8 (5)	38.5 (5)	38.7 (29)	41.2 (21)	

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Table 16 presents the relationship between area of residence and post-secondary school plans for male students, when family size, study programme, adacemic self-concept, and occupational expectations are held constant. Cells one and two indicate that 92.5 percent of male students from urban areas have post-secondary school plans while 93.4 percent of males from rural areas have similar plans. This .09 percent difference does not appear to be statistically significant at the .01 level.

Table 17 presents a similar crosstabular analysis for female students. A comparison of cells one and two indicates that 97.8 percent of females in rural areas have post-secondary school plans when family size, study programme, self-concept and occupational expectations are simultaneously controlled. Similarly, 96.4 percent of females in rural areas have postsecondary school plans. This 1.4 percent advantage for rural area students does not appear to be statistically significant.

Table 13 presents the WNPD effects of area of residence on postsecondary school plans for male and female students. The percentage advantage factor for male students from urban areas over males from rural areas in their chances of having post-secondary school plans is -1.67 percent when family size, study programme, self-concept, and occupational expectations are all held constant. Similarly, the percentage advantage factor for female students is -2.90 percent. These negative WNPDs indicate that when family size, study programme, self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations are simultaneously controlled, the percentage advantage factors are more advantageous to rural area students than urban area students. Thus, the hypothesis must be rejected for both male and female students. According to the WNPDs, female students are more adversely affected than male students.

Hypothesis 20: Students who are enrolled in the academic study programme will be more likely to have post-secondary school plans than students enrolled in the general study programme. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for males and females.

Table 16 analyses the relationship between study programme and postsecondary school plans, for male students, by controlling for area of residence, family size, self-concept of academic ability, and occupational expectations. Cells one and five indicate that 93.4 percent of males who are enrolled in the academic study programme have post-secondary school plans when family size, area of residence, self-concept of ability and occupational expectations are held constant. Similarly, 64.3 percent of male students on the general study programme have post-secondary school plans. This 29.1 percent advantage for males on the academic study programme, in relation to having post-secondary school plans, is undoubtedly of substantive significance.

Table 17 presents the effect of study programme on post-secondary school plans, for female students only, when family size, area of residence, self-concept of ability and occupational expectations are held constant. A comparison of cells one and five indicate that 97.8 percent of females on the academic study programme have post-secondary school plans while 80.0 percent of females on the general study programme have similar plans. This 17.8 percent advantage for females on the academic study programme over those females on the general study programme appears to be statistically significant beyond the .01 level.

Table 13 presents the WNPD effects of study programme on postsecondary school plans for males and females separately. The percentage advantage factor for male students on the academic study programme over males on the general study programme in their chances of having postsecondary school plans is 7.93 percent when family size, area of residence, self-concept of academic ability, and occupational expectations are held constant. Similarly, the percentage advantage factor for female students is 7.96 percent. The WNPDs are significant far beyond the.Ol level and consequently, the hypothesis is accepted for both male and female students.

<u>Hypothesis 21</u>: Students who have a high self-concept of academic ability will be more likely to have post-secondary school plans than students who have a low self-concept of academic ability. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for male and female students.

Table 16 presents the relationship between self-concept of academic ability and post-secondary school plans, for male students, when family size, area of residence, study programme, and occupational expectations are held constant. Cells one and nine indicate that 93.4 percent of males, who have a high self-concept of academic ability, have postsecondary school plans, while 83.3 percent of males with low self-concept of academic ability, have post-secondary school plans. This 10.1 percent difference in high and low self-concept of ability regarding postsecondary school plans is almost certain to be statistically significant at the .01 level.

Table 17 illustrates the relationship between self-concept of academic ability and post-secondary school plans, for females only, when family size, area of residence, study programme, and occupational expectations are held constant. A comparison of cells one and nine indicate that 97.8 percent of females, who have a high self-concept of academic ability, have post-secondary school plans while 91.7 percent of female students who have a low self-concept of academic ability, have post-secondary school plans. This 6.1 percent difference appears to be statistically significant at the .01 level.

Table 13 presents the WNPD effects of self-concept of academic ability on post-secondary school plans for males and females. The percentage advantage factor for male students with a high self-concept of academic ability over males with a low self-concept of academic ability in their chances of having post-secondary school plans is 4.42 percent, when family size, area of residence, study programme, and occupational expectations are simultaneously controlled. Similarly, the percentage advantage factor for female students is 4.29 percent. It appears that the advantage of having a high academic self-concept in relation to post-secondary school plans is marginally greater among male students than females. Both of these percentage advantage factors are significant beyond the .01 level. Consequently, the hypothesis is accepted for males and females.

<u>Hypothesis 22</u>: Students who have high occupational expectations will be more likely to have post-secondary school plans than students who have low occupational expectations. We hypothesize that this relationship will be significant at the .01 level for both male and female students.

Table 16 shows the relationship between occupational expectations and post-secondary school plans, for male students, when family size, area of residence, study programme and self-concept of academic ability are simulataneously controlled. A comparison of cells one and seventeen indicates that 93.4 percent of males with high occupational expectations have post-secondary school plans, while 79.5 percent of males with low occupational expectations have similar plans. This 13.9 percent advantage for males with high occupational expectations is likely to be statistically significant at the .01 level.

Table 17 presents the relationship between occupational expectations and post-secondary school plans for female students when family size, area of residence, study programme, and self-concept of academic ability are held constant. The cells one and seventeen indicate that 97.8 percent of females with high occupational expectations have post-secondary school plans while 81.8 percent of females with low occupational expectations have similar plans. This 16 percent difference is almost certainly significant beyond the .01 level.

Table 13 presents the WNPD effects of occupational expectations on post-secondary school plans for males and females. The percentage advantage factor for female students with high occupational expectations over females with low occupational expectations, in their chances of having post-secondary school plans, is 9.01 percent when family size, area of residence, study programme and self-concept of academic ability are simultaneously controlled. Similarly, the percentage advantage factor for male students is 7.84 percent. Thus, it appears that the advantage factor is larger among females than males. Both of these

percentage advantage factors are significant far beyond the .Ol level and consequently, the hypothesis is accepted for male and female students.

#### SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the results of the study. The first section of the chapter dealt with results related to study programme. Secondly, results related to self-concept of academic ability were investigated. Thirdly, results related to occupational expectations were examined and finally, results related to post-secondary school plans. Figures one and two present the results for the study in a diagram in which the nonsignificant paths have been deleted.

#### FIGURE 2

A CAUSAL FLOW DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING THE RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS FOR MALE STUDENTS<sup>a</sup>



#### FIGURE 3

A CAUSAL FLOW DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING THE RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS FOR FEMALE STUDENTS<sup>a</sup>



a The numbers on the paths are the WNPDs (cf. Table 18).

#### CHAPTER 5

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter deals with a summary of the results of the study and the conclusion. In the summary we recapitulate the study under three subheadings: the problem, the procedure, and a summary of the results. In the conclusion, the theoretical and practical implications of the study are discussed along with suggestions for further research.

#### SUMMARY

The primary purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between post-secondary school plans of Newfoundland high school students in grade eleven and certain selected influential variables. These variables include: (1) background variables; parental education, socioeconomic status, family size, and rural-urban area of residence, and (2) school-related variables such as the study programme in which the student is enrolled in high school, self-concept of academic ability, and occupational expectations of the student. Based on a review of the related research, the following hypotheses were investigated.

- There is a significant relationship between the study programme a student follows in high school and background variables such as parental education, socio-economic status, family size and urbanrural area of residence.
- There is a significant relationship between the self-concept of academic ability of a student and the four background variables, and the school-related variable, study programme.

- 3. There is a significant relationship between students' occupational expectations and the students' background variables and the two school-related variables, study programme and self-concept of academic ability.
- 4. There is a significant relationship between students' post-secondary school plans and the four background variables, study programme, self-concept of academic ability, and occupational expectations.

#### Procedure

The sample was selected from the total number of high schools in Newfoundland and Labrador in which grade eleven students were enrolled for the 1973-74 academic school year. There were some 7008 questionnaires returned to the "Committee on 1973 Enrollment" at Memorial University, who were responsible for collecting the data. The questionnaires were distributed to the schools only after the various authorized personnel were contacted and permission granted. The superintendents of education, the Newfoundland Teachers Association, and the principals of the schools cooperated with the Committee in administering the questionnaires. Responses were tabulated and coded on IBM cards for computer analysis at the Newfoundland and Labrador Computer Centre.

Twenty-two research hypotheses were formulated in order to analyse the study's findings. Three separate modes of analyses were con-

ducted to test these hypotheses: (1) Multiple regression analysis was used in a preliminary analysis to test the strength of the relationships; (2) Crosstabulation; (3) Spady's weighted net percentage difference technique.

The findings for this study were categorized into four separate categories; (1) Results related to study programme (Hypotheses 1-4); (2) Results related to self-concept of academic ability (Hypotheses 5-9); (3) Results related to students' occupational expectations (Hypotheses 10-15); (4) Results related to post-secondary school plans of grade eleven students (Hypotheses 16-22).

#### Results

This section provides a summary of the results for this study. Each relationship in the theoretical model is dealt with separately, and the results recorded for males and females.

Table 18 provided a summary of the findings. The relationship between parental education and study programme is significant for both males and females. The percentage advantage factor for males is 6.68 percent and 6.75 percent for females.

The relationship between socio-economic status and study programme is significant for males (WNPD = 3.73 percent) at the .01 level but insignificant for females.

The relationship between family size and study programme is significant for both males (WNPD = 3.23 percent) and females (WNPD = 4.95 percent).

The relationship between area of residence and study progamme is not statistically significant at the .01 level for either males or females.

The relationship between parental education and self-concept of academic ability is significant for both males (WNPD = 2.80 percent) and females (WNPD = 1.56 percent).

The relationship between socio-economic status and self-concept of academic ability is significant at the .01 level for females (1.77 percent) but insignificant for males.

The relationship between family size and self-concept of academic ability is not significant at .01 level for males or females. Similarly, the relationship between area of residence and self-concept of academic ability is not significant at the .01 level.

The relationship between study programme and self-concept of academic ability is significant at the .Ol level for males (WNPD = 3.92 percent) and females (WNPD = 1.81 percent).

The relationship between parental education and occupational expectations is not statistically significant at the .01 level for males nor females.

The relationship between socio-economic status and occupational expectations is significant for both males (WNPD = 3.60 percent) and females (WNPD = 1.84 percent).

The relationship between family size and occupational expectations is not statistically significant, at the .01 level, for males or females. Likewise, the relationship between area of residence and occupational expectations for males and females is also statistically insignificant.

The relationship between study programme and occupational expectations is statistically insignificant at the .01 level for males but statistically significant for females (WNPD = 11.16 percent).

The relationship between self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations is not statistically significant at the .01 level for males but is statistically significant for females (3.59 percent).

The relationship between parental education and post-secondary school plans is statistically significant at the .01 level for females (WNPD = 1.73 percent) and not significant for males.

The relationship between socio-economic status and post-secondary school plans is not statistically significant at the .01 level for both males and females.

The relationship between family size and post-secondary school plans is statistically significant at the .01 level for males (WNPD = 1.71 percent) and females (WNPD = 1.83 percent).

The relationship between area of residence and post-secondary school plans is statistically significant at the .01 level for males (WNPD = -1.67 percent) and females (WNPD = -2.90 percent). The negative coefficients indicate that we predicted a positive relationship but found a negative.

The relationship between study programme and post-secondary school plans is statistically significant at the .01 level for males (WNPD = 7.93 percent) and females (WNPD = 7.96 percent).

The relationship between self-concept of academic ability and postsecondary school plans is significant for both males (WNPD = 4.42 percent) and females (WNPD = 4.29 percent).

The relationship between occupational expecations and post-secondary school plans is statistically significant at the .01 level for males (WNPD = 7.84 percent) and females (WNPD = 9.01 percent).

This section of the chapter dealt with a summary of the results of the hypothesized relationships for males and females. Table 18 presents a summary of the hypotheses for the study, indicating whether they are significant or nonsignificant at the .01 level for males and females.

#### CONCLUSION

#### Discussion of the Results

Tables 19 and 20 give the rank ordering of the variables in the four stages of the model. This enables one to review the overall rank of any one particular independent variable on the dependent variable. It is apparent from Table 19 and 20 that the most powerful predictors in this study are those which are school-dependent; that is, manipulatable with the least societal effort (Bulcock, 1975:25). Study programme, selfconcept of academic ability, and occupational expectations are more manageable from within the school than background variables such as socioeconomic status, family size, parental education, and community size. Hence, the outstanding relationships in this study are discussed in view of what three major Canadian studies in educational aspirations have recorded (Parsons, 1974; Porter, et al. 1973; Breton, 1972).

One of the foremost relationships in the previous research is the positive effect of socio-economic status on the educational aspirations of youth. Parsons (1974:136) recorded that of those students in Newfoundland who aspire to attend university, 62.4 percent will be from the upper class whereas only 28.8 percent will be of lower social class. This difference indicates quite a large disparity between classes in the Newfoundland context. Breton, (1972:138) in a study of Canadian youth,

## SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

WNPD

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables	Males	Females	
Parental Education	5 344	6.68%	6.75%	
Socio-Economic Status	Study Programme	3.73%	(**)	
Family Size		3.23%	4.95%	
Area of Residence		**	**	
Parental Education	Self-Concept of Academic Ability	2.80%	1.56%	
Socio-Economic Status		**	1.77%	
Family Size		**	**	
Area of Residence		**	**	
Study Programme		3.92%	1.81%	
Parental Education	Occupational Expectations	**	**	
Socio-Economic Status		3.60%	1.84%	
Family Size		**	**	
Area of Residence		**	**	
Study Programme	Cheve Programma SCA	**	11.16%	
Self-Concept of Academic Ability		**	3.59%	
Parental Education	Post-Secondary School			
	Plans	1.15%	1.73%	
Socio-Economic Status	300 700	{: <u>3</u> 9%	0.52% (**)	
Family Size		1.71%	1.83%	
Area of Residence		-1.67%	-2.90%	
Study Programme		7.93%	7.96%	
Self-Concept of Acad. Ab	pil.	4.42%	4.29%	
Occupational Expectation	IS	7.84%	9.01%	
** Indicates non-signifi	cant relationships at the	.01 level.		
Predictor	Programme	Dependent SCA	Variable Occ. Exp.	PSSP
-------------	-------------	------------------	-----------------------	------
PARED	1	2	2**	5**
FATHOCC	2	3**	l	5**
FAMSZ	3	3**	2**	4
URBAN-RURAL	<u>4</u> **	3**	2**	5**
PROGRAMME		l	2**	l
SCA			2**	3
OCC. EXP.				2

RANK ORDER OF WNPD EFFECTS FOR MALES ONLY

TABLE 19

\*\* Indicates nonsignificant relationship at .01 level.

## TABLE 20

RANK ORDER OF WNPD EFFECTS FOR FEMALES ONLY

Predictor P	D	ependent V SCA	Variable Occ. Exp.	PSSP
PARED	1	3	4**	5
FATHOC	3**	2	3	6**
FAMSZ	2	<u></u> 4**	<u>}</u> **	4
URBAN-RURAL	3**	<u>4</u> **	4**	6**
PROGRAMME	antive sig	l	1	2
SCA			2	3
OCC. EXP.	the relay!	onship bei	tveen pacia	1

\*\* Indicates nonsignificant relationship at .01 level.

in a study of Canadian youth, found that of those students who aspire to attend post-secondary school, 13 percent more males come from high socioeconomic status families than low socio-economic status families. For females, there was a 10 percent difference in the two classes. Porter, <u>et al</u>. (1973:44) indicate that in a study of Ontario high school youth, of those students who plan to graduate from university 51 percent are from the highest social class while only 24 percent are from the lowest social class.

All three of the above studies indicate that there is a major positive relationship between socio-economic status background and a student's educational aspirations. Throughout the four stages of the model in this study, socio-economic status is shown to have only modest explanatory power when the effects of other variables are simultaneously controlled. For example, the relationship between socio-economic status and post-secondary school plans is a negligible 0.39 percent for males and a 0.52 percent for females when simultaneously controlling for family size, study programme, self-concept of academic ability, and occupational expectations. The relationship between socio-economic status and selfconcept of academic ability is insignificant for males but significant for females (WNPD = 1.77 percent) at the .01 level when parental education, family size, area of residence, and study programme are held constant. The relationship between socio-economic status and study programme is, however, of substantive significance at the .01 level when parental education and family size are held constant, for male students only (3.73 percent). Finally, the relationship between socio-economic status and occupational expectations is analysed when controlling for

family size, study progamme, and self-concept of ability. Table 18 indicates that the percentage advantage factor is larger for males (WNPD = 3.60 percent) than females (WNPD = 1.84 percent). Thus, social class has only modest effects on educational aspirations and selfconcept of academic ability in the presence of control variables.

One of the most significant variables in this study is study programme of the student. Parsons (1974:140) emphasizes the importance of the academic study programme in high school. Those who plan to attend a post-secondary school are more likely to be enrolled in the academic study programme than the general programme (14.6 percent). This is a significant finding regarding programme of study in relation to postsecondary school plans.

Breton (1972:190) further emphasizes the importance of study programme on educational aspirations. He contends that the advantage for students enrolled in an academic, non-terminal programme in high school is 34 percent for male students and 41 percent for females regarding their educational aspirations. Breton further comments that these differences in study programme placement does not change significantly when controlling for mental ability, socio-economic background, and language.

Table 18 indicates that the variable 'study programme' has substantial effects on the three dependent variables, self-concept of academic ability, occupational expectations and post-secondary school plans. The effect of study programme on self-concept of academic ability is significant when parental education, socio-economic status, family size, and area of residence are held constant. Students who are enrolled in

the academic programme in high school, then, develop and maintain a higher self-concept than those students who are enrolled in the general programme. Consequently, by placing a student on a general programme, the school deprives the child of the opportunity to develop a positive academic self-concept. Table 18 indicates that the percentage advantage factor is 3.92 percent for males and 1.81 percent for females.

The study shows that the effect of study programme on occupational expectations is significant at the .01 level when controlling for socioeconomic status, family size, and self-concept of academic ability for female students (WNPD = 11.16 percent). Females on the academic study programme will have substantively higher occupational expectations than females enrolled in the general programme. Thus, the placement of a female student on a general programme in high school is likely to retard or deflate occupational expectations. However, a cursory inspection of Table 18 indicates that the relationship between study programme and occupational expectations for male students (0.48 percent) does not have a significant effect, whereas for females, the relationship is of considerable importance (11.16 percent).

The relationship between study programme and post-secondary school plans is a statistically important relationship in this study. Male students who are enrolled in an academic study programme in high school have a 7.93 percent advantage over males enrolled in the general programme, in their chances of having post-secondary school plans when family size, self-concept, and occupational expectations are held constant. Since this variable is school-dependent, educators should be more concerned

with school policy, over which they have some control, rather than family-related variables such as socio-economic status. Similarly, the percentage advantage factor for females is 7.96 percent.

The relationship between occupational expectations and postsecondary school plans is 9.01 percent for females. This is the highest predictor of post-secondary educational plans in the conceptual model. The relationship is investigated while simultaneously controlling for other variables in the analysis, self-concept of ability, study programme, and family size. Similarly, the percentage advantage factor for males is 7.84 percent. Many analysts have shown that educational outcomes are highly correlated with occupational prestige. However, the author feels that the recursive relationship is justifiable in that grade eleven students in Newfoundland are likely to have crystalized vocational expectations. Consequently, their occupational expectations will determine the type of post-secondary school they wish to attend. In other words, if a student aspires to become an engineer he will attend the appropriate institution where the course can be obtained. Thus, job expectations of students will very likely predict their educational aspirations.

To conclude the discussion on the most significant predictors of educational aspirations of students after high school, we must look at the relationship between self-concept of academic ability and two of the dependent variables in the study, occupational expectations and post-secondary school plans. The relationship

between self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations is not significant at the .01 level for males. Table 18 indicates that female students who have a high academic self-concept, have a 3.59 percent greater chance of aspiring to high occupational status jobs than those students who have a low self-concept of academic ability. This advantage is a more accurate measure than other analysts (Porter, <u>et al.</u>, 1973) have found because of the presence of these control variables in the analysis - parental education, socio-economic status, family size, and study programme. It should be noted, however, that although the relationship between self-concept of academic ability and occupational expectations is statistically significant for females (3.59 percent) for male students the effect is insignificant at the .01 level.

The relationship between self-concept of academic ability and postsecondary school plans is significant for both males and females. This result is significant when family size, area of residence, study programme, and occupational expectations are held constant. The percentage advantage factor for male students who have a high self-concept of academic ability over males who have a low self-concept is 4.42 percent which is significant at the .01 level. Similarly, the percentage advantage factor for females is 4.29 percent. The rank ordering of the WNPDs (Tables 20 and 21) indicate that the effect of self-concept on post-secondary school plans is so powerful that the relationship ranks third in the overall study. Only the influence of occupational expectations and study programme rank higher. This seems to indicate that self-concept of academic ability, a school-related variable, has a much larger effect on students' educational aspirations than any one

of the family background variables. Research evidence supports the notion that teachers in Newfoundland influence a student's self-concept to a greater degree than parents because parental educational levels tend to be low (Singh, 1972). Consequently, students should be given encouragement to do well in school by their teachers. Instead, low achievers are often invidiously compared to their peers, and sometimes labelled incompetent. As a result, they are placed in a general programme or even worse, placed in a special education class. If such conditions are not ameliorated, the high dropout rate in Newfoundland schools will likely continue.

In effect the theoretical implications of the study suggest that the most powerful predictors in this study are school-dependent in the sense that they are manipulatable by the school authorities. Thus it is likely that study programme, self-concept of ability, and occupational expectation processes are more policy manageable than the four background variables in the study: parental education, socio-economic status, family size, and urban-rural area of residence. The relative effects of socioeconomic status and parental education on post-secondary educational plans are quite modest when mediated through the intervening variables study programme, self-concept of ability, and occupational expectations. In general, the findings regarding the relationship between socio-economic status and other predictors of educational aspiration, such as self-concept and occupational expectations, denote the modest effect of socio-economic status in the presence of control variables. In terms of magnitude, socioeconomic status does not emerge as being the all-powerful determinant of students' post-secondary school plans hypothesized by leading Canadian analysts.

Analyses of the relationships between variables should be investigated while simultaneously controlling for the effects of other variables. Many former studies have not utilized the control mechanisms and, consequently, some variables which in other studies have been found to be significant, in this study were found to be insignificant. However, if variables are simultaneously controlled when data is analysed the most powerful predictors soon become apparent.

The results of this study show that the major predictors of students' post-secondary educational aspirations are well within the sphere of influence of the school. The study programme in which the student is placed, due mainly to an arbitrary test score, determines whether or not all post-secondary options are available. The academic programme in the high schools indicates to a student that theoretically, all post-secondary educational options are open to him after high school matriculation. The general programme however, tells its students that only certain educational gateways are available to them. Many postsecondary schools are closed to him such as university, technical courses and nursing school. Some writers contend that the programme literally serves as a dumping ground where students are labelled incompetent and thus, stigmatized. The general programme is not one that intrigues the student or inspires him to further his education at the post-secondary school level. On the other hand, the programme is mainly a terminal one with very few high status occupations.

available to its graduates. In view of this fact, it is likely that the dropout rate from school is mainly concentrated in this general programme rather than the academic programme. With due respect to all students, this programme should be reconstructed and a system introduced whereby all normal students, given the required amount of time, are provided with an opportunity to master the skills of learning. In this regard the high school administrator should be familiar with this negative influence the general study programme has on students' decisions to continue their education. Improvements in the area of programme development will encourage students to greater post-high school aspirations.

Another implication of this study is the importance of school personnel in helping students to decide on a particular occupation. The present study indicates that occupational expectations of students have a large effect on their post-secondary school plans. Most of the theoretical literature emphasizes the converse relationship. However, the writer maintains that students in grade eleven in Newfoundland, which is the final year of high school, have decided on the type of post-secondary schooling they desire. This is determined only after they decide the type of career they hope to pursue. School personnel such as teachers, counsellors, and others can be, and should be, instrumental in developing high occupational expectations in a student.

This study indicates that self-concept of academic ability is a major determinant of post-secondary school plans. Since this factor is also school-related, any variation in students' attitudes toward themselves are largely due to the way in which teachers view them in relation to the

students' ability. It is the writer's contention that many students drop out of school because of a lack of self-confidence in their own ability. This negative concept is developed through many processes that the school instigates, such as the grading system, report cards which rank the student according to their marks on ability tests, and by comparing students to other members of the same class. These processes, which are controlled within the school system, keep an under-achiever from developing and maintaining the self-confidence necessary for success. However, some students need more time than others in order to grasp the concept. What is more important is for the student to understand the phenomena irrespective of the time limit. If this factor could be overcome it is likely that the dropout rate in our schools would become much lower. The author contends that the variation in school performance and achievement motivation is reduced through the manipulation of time spent at the learning task (Bulcock, 1975:25). This implies that educators should consider the introduction of mastery learning techniques.

#### Recommendations for Research

This section of the thesis deals with some implications for future research in the area of post-secondary school plans as a result of the findings of this study.

A follow-up study should be carried out on these students to determine the proportion that actually fulfilled their aspirations in September of 1974.

Studies similar to this one need to be investigated using other independent variables associated with socio-economic status background. As can be expected, much of the variance in students' choice of postsecondary school plans remain unexplained.

Related studies are deemed necessary in the United States and other Canadian provinces as well as other areas. Greater emphasis could be placed on the more school-related factors and as a result, prepare school personnel with the necessary skills to bridge the gap between student background and post-secondary education.

Finally, it is hoped that further research such as the Parsons (1972-73; 1973-74) study can be carried out to benefit education in Newfoundland. Many benefits are attributed to those whose educational attainment is of a post-high school nature. People who are educated are more inclined to be active in the organization of social matters which benefit community and society as a whole. Educated persons are more apt to work and are less likely to become a burden for public expenditure.

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You deal here your name and berholden. But, to be also to and to the leftermation you provide being we read to here your name and berholden in order to match this information with solvequient, date. Unlike your face any strong objections would you please give as this information in the series provided before. Your each and providers would remain completely confidential beformation, and mould be used only to able that to what your here shready provided.

To keep this approximate confidential and it is the evaluate provided when it is completed. No one, other than the meaning personnel on this project, will ever set it.

#### APPENDIX A

#### CAREER DECISIONS OF NEWFOUNDLAND YOUTH

Post-secondary schools, such as universities, institutes of technology, trade schools, and the like, need to plan ahead to be able to provide for the needs of the students who go there. What we are trying to do here is help them in their planning for the 1974-75 year. To do this we need to know what this year's grade eleven students intend to do in 1974-75. Please answer the questions set out below to the best of your knowledge. By so doing, you will help the post-secondary schools in Newfoundland plan for the best education of the students who arrive in 1974-75.

#### . . . . . . . .

ALL THE INFORMATION YOU PROVIDE HERE WILL BE COMPLETLY CONFIDENTIAL THE ANSWERS YOU GIVE WILL BE USED FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES ONLY. NO INDIVIDUAL WILL EVER BE IDENTIFIED BY NAME. YOUR NAME WILL NEVER BE REVEALED.

The value of this research could be increased ten-fold if the information you provide here could be added to some time in the future. For example, in addition to knowing what all grade eleven students in Newfoundland plan to do in 1974-75, it would be very valuable to know what they actually did when the time came. We could get this information a year from now, and even more information in subsequent years. Research of this sort provides a factual basis on which to formulate policy concerning the educational and occupational careers of this Province's youth.

You need not give your name and birthdate. But, to be able to add to the information you provide here we need to have your name and birthdate in order to match this information with subsequent data. Unless you have any strong objections would you please give us this information in the space provided below. Your name and birthdate would remain completely confidential information, and would be used only to add data to what you have already provided.

To keep this questionnaire confidential seal it in the envelope provided when it is completed. No one, other than the research personnel on this project, will ever see it.

NAME: \_\_\_\_

FIRST NAME

MONTH

SECOND NAME

YEAR

DATE OF BIRTH:

SURNAME

1.	SEX	
		male
		female

WHAT ARE YOUR PARENTS' OCCUPATIONS? (Please read all classifications before answering. Check 2. the occupational group that best describes his/her job.)

	Tather	mother
Owner/manager of a large business (e.g. employs three or more people)		1
Owner/manager of a small business (e.g. employs less than three people) .	2	2
Professional/technical (e.g., lawyer, doctor, teacher, etc.)		3
Clerical (e.g., clerk, bookkeeper, office worker, etc.)	4	4
Home duties (housewife)	5	5
Sales (e.g., insurance, real estate salesman, etc.)	6	6
Service and recreation (e.g., policeman, cook, barber, etc.)		07
Transport and communication (e.g., bus driver, radio announcer)	8	8
Fishing	9	9
Farmers and farm workers (e.g., farmer, farm laborer, etc.)	10	10
Logging and mining (e.g., lumberman, miner etc.)	11	11
Craftsman (e.g., carpenter, plumber, electrician, machinist, etc.)	12	12
Laborer (e.g., construction laborer, etc.)	13	13
Unemployed	14	14
Other (Please specify): father	15	15
mother	16	16
Deceased	17	17

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#### HOW MUCH UNEMPLOYMENT, IF ANY, HAVE YOUR PARENTS EXPERIENCED OVER THE PAST 3. TWO OR THREE YEARS?

	father	mother
none at all	1	1
once or twice for short periods	2	2
frequently for short periods	3	3
for long periods of time	4	4
most of the time	5	5
not applicable	6	6

HOW FAR DID YOUR PARENTS GO IN SCHOOL? 4.

	father	mother
grade five or less		
grade six	2	2
grade seven	3	
grade eight	4	4
grade nine	5	5
grade ten	6	6
grade eleven	07	07
some university	8	8
graduated from university	9	09
other post-secondary school (e.g. college of fisheries, etc.)	10	10
nost-secondary technical training		
le a armed forces training apprenticeship training etc.)	111	111
reigi, armed forces training, apprentices inp training, etc./	112	012
ather (cleare reacify) father	112	012
Utier (piease specify, latter		
mouter	-14	14

#### 5. WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS DESCRIBES YOUR FAMILY SITUATION?

I live with both my parents																	 									1
I live with my mother only																	 	 •						•		2
I live with my father only																	 							•		3
I live with foster parents .																	 									4
Other	•	• •				•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	 		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	5

6. HOW MANY BROTHERS AND SISTERS DO YOU HAVE?

1

17. Plane di

none																																												1	
one																																												2	
two																																												3	ķ.
three		•																											•					•										4	ł
four					•																														•		•		•		•			5	Ŕ
five		•		•		•				•	•			•	•		•					•		•	•					•	•				•		•	•	•	•	•			6	k
six .		•				•	•	•					•	•		•						•	•			•	•				•			•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•		7	1
seven			•		•					•		•		•				•	•	•		•	•				•	•	•				•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			8	1
eight	0	r	m	0	re																									•		•		•		•		•	•	4	•			9	1

7. HOW MANY OF YOUR BROTHERS AND SISTERS ARE OLDER THAN YOU?

none																																												C	1
one																			•																•									C	2
two									•																								•	•	•					•				C	3
three																		•							•	•								•	•		•	•	•	•					4
iour																		•			•			•							•		•	•		•	•							L	5
ive	•							•			•				•	•		•			•		•			•			•	•				•			•	•		•		•	•	E	6
ix.			•			•	•	•	•	•		•		•	•		•	•	•	•		•		•	•	•	• •		•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	L	7
even	í.	•	•						•		•	•	•	•			•			•		•	•	•		•					•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•				C	8
eight	0	e	m	01	e										-				•																									C	9

8. HOW MANY OF YOUR BROTHERS AND SISTERS GO TO POST-SECONDARY SCHOOLS (E.G., UNIVERSITY, COLL: GE OF FISHERIES, VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS, ETC.), AND HOW MANY HAVE JOBS?

																														university	post-secondary schools	job
none		•																 													0.1	1
one																		 												2	2	2
two																		 													3	
three																		 		•								. •		4	4	4
four																		 												5	5	5
five													•			•		 												6	6	6
six .													•	•				 														
seven	1	•	•									•		•		•	•	 				• •		•	•			•	•		8	
eight	0	r	m	0	re	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	 • •	•	•	+	•	• •		•	•	•	•	•	9	9	9

9. WHICH PROGRAM OF STUDIES ARE YOU ENROLLED IN THIS YEAR?

															-													
Academic				•		 					 																1	
General .			•	•	• •	 		•	•		 • •	• •	• •	• •		•		•	• •	 •		•	•	•	•	•	2	!

 HOW MUCH DO YOU KNOW ABOUT THE COURSES OF STUDY AVAILABLE AT EACH OF THE VARIOUS POST SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE PROVINCE? (Circle the appropriate number to indicate your response in each case.)

	nothing	a lot
College of Trades and Technology	1 2 3 4	5
College of Fisheries	1 2 3 4	5
Vocational Schools	1 2 3 4	5
Memorial University	1 2 3 4	5
Other universities (outside the Province)	1 2 3 4	5
Nursing School	1 2 3 4	5
Other (Please specify)	1 2 3 4	5
Other (Please specify)	1 2 3 4	5

;

15. You have probably heard by now something about the type of environment that exists in the various post-secondary schools in this Province. Consider one aspect of this environment, the ACADEMIC ENVIRONMENT. By this we mean the set of experiences that one would get from participating in the school's educational program. PLEASE RATE THE QUALITY OF THE ACADEMIC ENVIRONMENT OFFERED BY EACH OF THE POST-SECONDARY SCHOOLS LISTED BELOW. (Circle the appropriate number to indicate your response in each case.)

	good	good
College of Trades and Technology	1 2 3	4 5
College of Fisheries	1 2 3	4 5
Vocational Schools	1 2 3	4 5
Memorial University	1 2 3	4 5
Other Universities (outside the Province)	1 2 3	4 5
Nursing School	1 2 3	4 5
Other (please specify)	1 2 3	4 5

16. One other major aspect of the school environment is the SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT. By this we mean the set of experiences that one would get from participating in the social life that exists among students at the School. PLEASE RATE THE QUALITY OF THE SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT OFFERED BY EACH OF THE POST-SECONDARY SCHOOLS LISTED BELOW. (Circle the appropriate number to indicate your response in each case.)

	good			good
College of Trades and Technology	1 2	3	4	5
College of Fisheries	1 2	3	4	5
Vocational Schools	1 2	3	4	5
Memorial University	1 2	3	4	5
Other Universities (outside the Province)	1 2	3	4	5
Nursing School	1 2	3	4	5
Other (please specify)	1 2	3	4	5

17. Please think about your academic abilities and performances; for example, how well you did in school last year. Then, RATE YOURSELF ALONG EACH OF THE DIMENSIONS LISTED BELOW. (Circle the appropriate number to indicate your response in each case.)

	low				high	
Your ability compared with that of your close friends	1	2	3	4	5	
Your ability compared with other members of your school class	1	2	3	4	5	
Your ability to complete a university degree	1	2	3	4	5	
Your ability to complete a post-graduate university degree like an M.A	1	2	3	4	5	
The quality of your own work at present	1	2	3	4	5	
The kind of grades (marks) you are capable of getting	1	2	3	4	5	

18. PLEASE INDICATE THE EXTENT TO WHICH YOU AGREE WITH EACH OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS. (Circle the appropriate number to indicate your response in each case.)

	strong	ly			strongly	
Knowing the right people is important in deciding whether a person will *				disagree		
get ahead	1	2	3	4	5	
When I make plans I am almost certain that I can make them work	1	2	3	4	5	
Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it	1	2	2	A.	-	
As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are victims of forces we		-	2	~	5	
can herther understand hor control	. 1	2	3	4	5	
there will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them	1	2	3	4	5	
This world is run by the few people in power and there is not much the				in'		
intre guy can do about it	1	2	3	4	5	

19. The following question concerns the occupation you would LIKE to have when you complete your schooling and, considering the opportunities for jobs today, the occupation you EXPECT to have when you graduate.

PLEASE INDICATE THE CATEGORY OF OCCUPATIONS YOU WOULD LIKE TO HAVE-AND THE CATEGORY YOU EXPECT TO HAVE-WHEN YOU FINISH YOUR SCHOOLING. (Check the appropriate box to indicate your answer in each case.)

ALSO, IN THE SPACE PROVIDED BESIDE EACH OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, PLEASE WRITE IN THE SPECIFIC OCCUPATION YOU WOULD LIKE TO HAVE, AND THE ONE YOU EXPECT TO HAVE. (e.g., teacher, plumber, fisherman, real estate salesman, etc.). If the occupation you would like to have and the one you expect to have are the same, write in only one name.

	LIKE	EXPECT
Owner/manager of a large business	1	01
Owner/manager of a small business	2	2
Professional/technical		
Clerical	4	4
Sales	5	5
Service and recreation	6	6
Transport and communication	07	
Fishing	8	8
Farmers and farm workers	9	9
Logging and mining	10	10
Craftsman	11	
Laborer	12	12
Other	113	13
Home Duties	14	14

20. DO YOU PLAN TO ATTEND A POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL NEXT YEAR (1974-75)?

NO	
YES	

PLEASE TURN TO PAGE AND CONTINUE ON PLEASE CONTINUE ON AND ANSWER THE QUESTIONS IMMEDIATELY BELOW

1

2

\*\*\*\* ANSWER QUESTIONS 21 TO 25 ONLY IF YOU PLAN TO ATTEND \*\*\*\* A POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL IN 1974-75.

21. WHICH POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL DO YOU EXPECT TO ATTEND IN 1974-75? (Please indicate your first choice and your second choice of school.)

		choice	choice
College of Trades and Technology		1	
College of Fisheries		2	3
Vocational School (which one?	)		3
Memorial University		4	4
Other university (which one?	)	5	5
Nursing School		6	6
Other (please specify)		7	07

# 22. IF YOU PLAN TO ATTEND MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY, WHICH DEGREE PROGRAM WILL YOU ENROL IN?

Bachelor of Arts	1
Bachelor of Science	2
	4
Bachelor of Commerce	3
Bachelor of Nursing	4
Bachelor of Physical Education	5
Bachelor of Arts (Education) - Primary	-
bachelor of Arts (Education) - Frimary	6
Bachelor of Arts (Education) – Elementary	7
Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Arts	8
Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Physical Education	9
Bachelor of Education/Pachelor of Science	
Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Science	10
Bachelor of Engineering	11
Pre-Forestry	12
Bachelor of Medical Science	
	13
I do not plan to attend Memorial Llaivestity	

HOW IMPORTANT WAS EACH OF THE FOLLOWING IN HELPING YOU DECIDE ON WHICH POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL YOU WILL ATTEND IN 1974-75? (Circle the appropriate number to show how important each influence was.)

ז אקרייז			very		
The school is close to my home	1 :	2 3	4	5	
My parents advised me to go there	1 :	2 3	4	5	
The school offers courses that interest me	1 :	2 3	4	5	
Most of my friends will be going there	1 :	2 3	4	5	
Financial considerations	1 :	2 3	4	5	
The school will give me the job qualifications I need	1 :	2 3	4	5	
I can get paid to attend that school	1 :	2 3	4	5	
Teachers and/or guidance counsellors advised me to go there	1 :	2 3	4	5	
Graduates from that school can get jobs easily	1 :	2 3	4	5	
Advice from friends at university	1 :	2 3	4	5	
Advice from friends at other post-secondary schools	1 2	2 3	4	5	
The job market for university graduates	1 2	2 3	4	5	
The shorter period of training	1 2	2 3	4	5	
The money I will earn when I graduate	1. 2	2 3	4	5	
I can find accommodation with relatives or family friends	1 2	2 3	4	5	
Other family members or relatives attended that school	1 2	2 3	4	5	
Information provided by the mass media (e.g., T.V., radio, newspapers, etc.)	1 2	2 3	4	5	
Information provided by personnel from post-secondary schools	1 2	2 3	4	5	
Other (please specify)	1 2	2 3	4	5	
Other (please specify)	1 2	2 3	4	5	
Other (please specify)	1 2	2 3	4	5	

.....

24. PLEASE INDICATE APPROXIMATELY HOW MUCH OF YOUR TOTAL FINANCIAL SUPPORT FOR NEXT YEAR (1974-75) WILL COME FROM EACH OF THE SOURCES LISTED BELOW. (Circle the appropriate number to indicate your response in each case.)

		nouning	an
Parents		 1 2 3 4	5
Other family members or relatives		 1 2 3 4	5
Summer job or part-time job during	year	 1 2 3 4	5
Scholarship or bursary		 1 2 3 4	5
Canada Student Loan		 1 2 3 4	5
Other (please specify)	Should be should be a should be	1 2 3 4	5

HARK YOU, THAT'S ALL PLEASE CREEK YOUR ADDRERS, THEN SEAL THE OUTSTICHTAIRS IN THE EXVELOPS PROVIDED.

25. IF THERE ARE ANY REMARKS YOU WOULD CARE TO MAKE-REMARKS RELEVANT TO THE MATTER OF CAREER DECISIONS-PLEASE NOTE THESE DOWN IN THE SPACE BELOW.

> THANK YOU. THAT'S ALL. PLEASE CHECK YOUR ANSWERS, THEN SEAL THE QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE ENVELOPE PROVIDED.

\*\*\*\* ANSWER QUESTIONS 26 TO 29 ONLY IF YOU DO NOT PLAN \*\*\*\* TO ATTEND A POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL IN 1974-75.

26.	DO YOU EXPECT TO ATTEND A POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL AT A LATER DATE?	
	Yes, after six months or so	01
	Yes, after one year	2
	Yes, after two years	
	Yes, after three years	14
	Yes, after four years or so	5
	No, I do not plan on attending a post-secondary school ever	6
27.	WHAT DO YOU PLAN TO DO IN 1974-757	
	Get a job (what type?)	
	Travel	2
	Get married	
	Help out at home	14
	Nothing	15
	Other (please specify)	0 6

28. IF YOU EXPECT TO CONTINUE YOUR EDUCATION, HOW IMPORTANT WAS EACH OF THE FOLLOWING IN YOUR DECISION TO DELAY THE BEGINNING OF YOUR POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION? (Circle the appropriate number to show how important each influence was.)

Complete grade eleven .....

07

			import		ot	mt		in	nportant				
Undecided about the type of occupation I want							1	2		3	4	5	
Waiting to see what happens to the job market							1	2		3	4	5	
Want to broaden my experiences through travel						1	1	2		3	4	5	
Need to get a job to save money for more education							1	2		3	4	5	
Need to help out at home for a while							1	2		3	4	5	
Disillusioned with school							1	2		3	4	5	
Need to be independent for a while							1	2		3	4	5	
Unwilling to borrow money (e.g., Canada Student Loan)							1	2		3	4	5	
Want to broaden my experiences by working for a while							1	2		3	4	5	
I do not plan on continuing my education											. C	36	
I have not yet completed grade eleven											. [	] 7	

29. IF THERE ARE ANY REMARKS YOU WOULD CARE TO MAKE-REMARKS RELEVANT TO THE MATTER OF CAREER DECISIONS-PLEASE NOTE THESE DOWN IN THE SPACE BELOW.

THANK YOU. THAT'S ALL PLEASE CHECK YOUR ANSWERS, THEN SEAL THE QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE ENVELOPE PROVIDED.

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